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ABSTRACT

The Community Change for Youth Development (CCYD) demonstration is an attempt by Public/Private Ventures to create youth programming that can improve young people's present lives and future prospects in a wide range of communities. The core concepts of CCYD are: (1) increasing the number of caring and competent adults in youthUs lives; (2) increasing the number of positive and engaging experiences available in nonschool hours; (3) ensuring a strong connection between work and learning; (4) providing special support through critical transitions; and (5) involving youth themselves in designing and carrying out these activities. This report documents the early experiences of a group of communities that began to undertake the implementation of CCYD in late 1995. It focuses on early program planning sites in eight cities and early implementation in six cities. The first chapter introduces CCYD and its underlying concepts. Chapter 2 outlines how sites were chosen. Chapter 3 details the planning experiences for key participants--adult and youth residents in the implementation cities. In Chapter 4, how the planning experience shaped early implementation is explored, and the final chapter reflects on the early lessons from the initial phases of CCYD. Appendixes describe the core concepts of CCYD and provide summaries of strategic plans. (Contains two tables and one figure.) (SLD)

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ED 410 354

Launching a Resident-Driven Initiative

Community Change for Youth Development (CCYD) from Site-Selection to Early Implementation

Michelle Alberti Gambone

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FOREWORD AND SUMMARY

How to improve the current lives and future prospects of large numbers of youth living in poor areas across the country has challenged public and private policymakers for almost three decades. There have been some bright spots in this search, but what has been most frustrating has been the inability to simultaneously achieve progress in the key goals mentioned in the sentence above: improve youths' current lives; improve their future prospects; and do both for large numbers of youth living in many poor areas.

Over the past decade, an increasing number of observers have come to the conclusion that no single program can achieve those goals simultaneously. Logically, they have concluded, achieving four goals that encompass the present, the future, large numbers of youth and many communities, is simply incompatible with the inherent limitations of a "program."

Over the past five years, there have been a number of efforts to create something that is greater than a single program, yet still capable of coherent management and implementation—and thus offers promise of meeting those multiple goals in a recognizable initiative. That it be a recognizable initiative, even though it is beyond being a "program," is critical. For if we do come across something that meets the four goals, but cannot recognize its key elements and how to produce them, we have no chance of re-creating it elsewhere.

The challenge, then, is to create an initiative that is broader in scope, both substantively and in time, than any single program; yet limited enough to be operationally feasible; and universal enough that it could be applied in almost any community. The Community Change for Youth Development (CCYD) demonstration represents P/PV's effort to create such an initiative. It was shaped by our judgment that for an initiative to have even a reasonable chance of accomplishing the critical goals of improving youth's lives now, improving their future prospects, and doing so in large numbers, in a wide range of communities, three features would have to be present in its design:

- First, and most fundamental, is a sound substantive strategy. No matter how sincere the intent, strong the will or energetic the effort, to be effective an initiative must be on the mark regarding what motivates most youth's internal aspirations and energies, and what satisfies their basic developmental needs.

- Second, the initiative must be feasible to implement, without the need for heroic individuals, or for massive amounts of new money. It takes commitment and talent to build and implement any new venture—our experience is that most communities have individuals with those qualities. What we did not want to do was design an initiative so ambitious that it could only be carried out by people so rare that the initiative had little replicability.

The same reasoning applied to resources. While some new resources would be necessary, we did not want to ignore the current limited funding environment. We felt it was important to show some results before expecting significant funding increases.

- Third, the initiative's basic elements must attract and engage ordinary citizens, voters and decision-makers across a wide spectrum of political, social and economic strata—both those who live in the communities involved in the initiative, and those who are not in the community but make decisions affecting it.

  In short, the initiative's substance must have widespread appeal and potential for involvement. This is critical for two reasons. One is substantive: key positive influences on youth go well beyond what can be provided by youth-serving institutions and professionals, and increasing positive, healthy influences on youth means that nonprofessionals both within and outside the community need to be involved, not just through support of specialized youth programs, but through involving themselves, as individuals and institutions, in youth's lives. That is what makes for a community supportive of healthy youth development.

  The second reason has to do with sustainability in time and impact. An initiative's prospects for enduring over time increase if it is known and respected by a wide variety of citizens in and outside the community. And the prospects for an initiative enduring in effectiveness increase if it is continuously replenished by the ideas, energy and commitment of new individuals. Both these aspects of sustainability are served by a strategy that places a high value on widespread citizen involvement, as well as professional services.

CCYD's design attempts to include each of these three critical features. The first—having a sound substantive strategy—is reflected in the five "core concepts." They were shaped by our judgment that enough has been learned to build a framework of ideas that can guide activities and use of resources. The CCYD core concept framework proposes that to secure the healthy development of a large number of youth, and to prevent future problems in their development, a community should focus on:

- Increasing in youths' lives the number of caring, competent adults;

- Increasing the number of positive, engaging experiences available during non-school hours;

- Ensuring a strong connection between work and learning, both in school and in community activities;

- Providing special support through critical transitions, such as middle school to high school, and school to work; and

- Involving youth themselves in designing and carrying out all the above activities.

There is nothing mysterious or innovative in these ideas; each is advocated by many youth practitioners, researchers and policymakers, and each is implemented to varying degrees across the nation (though rarely as a strategic package). They represent our best judgment, based on research theory and experience, of the key common features of communities that turn out high numbers of healthy and successful youth. Obviously they do not include everything that each youth might at some point need. They are not an attempt to be comprehensive, but rather represent an infrastructure of prevention and healthy development.

CCYD's five core concepts are aimed at adolescents and teenagers, not because we think addressing younger ages is less important, but because our society is at present more willing and knowledgeable about how to address the prevention infrastructure of younger children. CCYD's core concepts attempt to provide a strategic framework for the age group for which we have the most difficulty framing policy. It is also the age at which youth begin to live in public as much as at home or other private settings, and thus the age where they experience more of the temptations and opportunities that can seriously endanger both their present and their future. It is an age group for which we think it makes sense for our country to have a policy that represents a threshold infrastructure of prevention.

The second feature—being feasible to implement, and in many communities—is represented by the limited number of core concepts, their very basic nature, and the wide variety of ways in which they can be carried out. CCYD is a group of choices aimed at focusing local activity and resources—but whose content and implementation vehicles can be shaped in almost as many forms as there are communities. No one local institution or programmatic approach is necessary or preferred in carrying out CCYD. And there are effective examples of how to meet CCYD's very basic operational goals available for emulation or replication.

CCYD's operational feasibility comes at a price, viz, it does not purport to meet every adolescent's every need. Its framework does not preclude additional service strategies, but its primary focus is ensuring a sound and developmentally oriented social infrastructure for all youth in a given community.

The third feature—widespread appeal and involvement beyond traditional youth-serving advocates and institutions—is reflected in several ways. First, the core concepts themselves are basic, and reflect most individuals' experience of growing up. Second, CCYD is governed in each community by a citizen group—not youth professionals. Third, those communities implementing CCYD in the national demonstration were not provided with funds sufficient to fully implement it, but rather to initiate it, that is, to reach out to and involve other institutions in implementing its core concepts—and thus to begin the process of redirecting existing resources to support this infrastructure of prevention. CCYD cannot be locally sustained and expanded without attracting and involving a wide variety of local actors and institutions.

This report documents the early experience of a group of communities that decided in late 1995 to undertake the implementation of CCYD. Thus it is an early assessment of CCYD's progress, and provides only clues as to its potential usefulness. The report focuses on the sites' early efforts to mobilize, organize and plan, since those are prerequisites to successful implementation.

Several of the report's key observations and findings are provocative both for CCYD's potential for sustainable impact on youth and communities, and for their broader implications:

1. We were gratified and a bit surprised by the strong and positive reception to CCYD's core concepts by most every community group we talked to—even by those with a stated commitment to local control of idea development and implementation, and a distrust of "top-down" policymaking. Although CCYD was designed to allow and encourage local ownership and creativity, it still is a guiding framework, and several early commentators were concerned that even this amount of centralized direction would violate the sense of "invented here" that many feel is necessary for local ownership and commitment.

   We did not find that to be the case. The communities and local institutions we worked with had more complex standards than that. They were receptive to ideas generated elsewhere as long as the ideas seemed on their face sound, had data and reasoning to back them up, and were not accompanied by restrictive guidelines regarding how to implement them, and who to involve in implementation. Several local leaders said they welcomed new ideas, especially a framework of ideas, to guide local action, since they had neither the time nor the resources to generate such policy frameworks.

   The notion of each community as an isolated group of particularities, which does not need national policy direction and will only take national support to the degree that it is block-granted and undirected—a notion very popular in current policy debates—seems overly simple and somewhat inaccurate, based on our CCYD experience. Given the huge increase in the number of teenagers that will soon characterize all areas of the United States, and the increasing number of adolescents who are in poverty and involved with crime and drugs, there may be more potential utility from—as well as more need for—a national policy initiative to prevent unhealthy teen activities and outcomes than the current policy discussion contemplates.

2. The traditional institutions and programs that receive public funding, and which most Americans think of as the places where youth development and prevention take place—viz, the public schools and the assortment of programs created over the past 20 years with public funding to address "youth problems"—are not necessarily the institu-

tions most ready to play a strong role in building up a social infrastructure of development and prevention for our teenagers.

All three of CCYD's full implementation sites—Austin, Savannah and St. Petersburg—elected not to bring traditional youth programs into the early CCYD planning process. They were concerned that the traditional programs would dominate the planning process, to the detriment of getting local residents and nontraditional institutions involved, and to the detriment of encouraging new ideas. Each site did have a plan for getting these traditional institutions and programs involved over time.

Public schools were also not initially involved in CCYD planning, primarily for two reasons: first, teenagers in each site were bussed to high schools all over the larger metropolitan area, and did not attend local schools in significant numbers. Thus there were no "community schools" to work with. Although the schools are still potential facilities for CCYD activities and, as important local institutions, have various potential roles in CCYD, the sites did not involve them heavily in CCYD planning for yet another reason: timing. They felt that in order to motivate and sustain resident involvement, it was important to complete initial CCYD planning and to implement some concrete activities within a reasonable period of time, and that formal involvement of the schools would prevent that—to the detriment of getting local citizens involved.

It is much too early to even speculate on the meaning for CCYD's later implementation of this (to us) surprisingly low involvement of traditional youth institutions and programs—a pattern common to three different low-income communities in three different states, and a pattern that was a conscious local decision in each community. But it does call for greater attention to the real-life institutional interests and frictions involved in instituting a new approach to communitywide healthy youth development.

The CCYD sites have embraced resident governance, the involvement of nontraditional institutions, and outreach through the media and decision-making institutions outside the community, as the key strategies for implementing and sustaining CCYD. They are not hostile to, but rather wary of, the interests and ideas of more traditional youth-serving institutions. The thoughtful and conscious decisions of these three communities raise questions about the idealized vision of community collaboration and consensus. The process of shifting to a policy that emphasizes "youth development" as much as "youth problems," and that sees community life being as important as schools to the later economic self-sufficiency of today's youth, might require as much attention to strategies of competition as to those of collaboration.

3. The soundness and effectiveness of local CCYD strategies and decisions rests primarily on the soundness and effectiveness of the local lead agencies. The three full research sites are led by institutions that have respect and resources, at both the national and local levels—and are independent of traditional youth-serving institutions in their

communities. One is a city community development agency (Austin) whose leadership has the wisdom to understand that community organizing is a critical component of community development and that a public agency that wants more community accountability cannot view citizen organizing as a threat. Another is an innovative local youth authority (Savannah) that is legislatively established, and has been nurtured over the years by its relationship with a major national foundation. The third (St. Petersburg) is an agency set up to administer local tax revenues collected solely for the purpose of addressing children, youth and family issues.

That strong organizations are necessary to do complex and strategic tasks is not news. What is worth noting is that neither public nor philanthropic funds, with only a few exceptions, have focused on creating, nurturing and sustaining such local organizations—perhaps especially in the area of youth issues. There are numerous youth agencies that run programs, in almost all areas of this country. But very few agencies are also committed to better policy strategies, and have enough independence to initiate and broker such strategies within the local environment of competing youth issues and youth organizational interests. The lack of such organizations, combined with the lack of a practical policy framework that can guide local action and resources, poses a serious obstacle to a shift toward a more preventive, youth development policy—both locally and nationally.

4. Resident involvement—both adults and youth—was a challenge in all six demonstration sites. The level and scheduling of time commitments; the skills necessary to participate in a formal governance structure; the sometimes awkward relationships with "professionals"—these and other obstacles presented themselves to the lead agencies charged with expanding resident involvement and developing resident governance in the CCYD initiative.

But there was very encouraging news. Those sites that utilized experienced organizers developed strategies for meeting all these obstacles. Involvement of both adult and youth residents grew and prospered, and in several sites had already developed by the beginning of implementation into genuine resident governance. It does appear that there are specific strategies that work to produce high levels of resident adult and youth involvement.

What is unclear is whether resident involvement will grow to significant numbers, replenish itself and attract outside involvement and support—in short, become a dynamic process and catalyst for CCYD's "community change" goal—or whether it will remain small in numbers, static in the nature of its roles and influence, and resource-intensive to maintain. The latter circumstance could still produce effective governance, but will be less likely to generate "community change," and less likely to attract and mobilize external attention and support. The initial year of implementation will provide a clearer sense of CCYD's direction on these issues, and on the utility of emphasizing resident involvement and governance in establishing a more "youth-friendly" neighborhood.

So, at this early stage, we are encouraged and hopeful about CCYD's prospects and usefulness. But whatever results emerge from CCYD on the many challenging issues that it addresses, its implementation, as this report evidences, will produce information valuable to practitioners and policymakers involved in youth and community-building issues.

Gary Walker
President

I. INTRODUCTION: THE RATIONALE AND APPROACH OF CCYD

The goal of Community Change for Youth Development (CCYD) is to improve the life outcomes of adolescents, 12 to 20 years old, living in impoverished communities. The underlying theory of CCYD is that mobilizing the key local institutions and residents of a community to rebuild the social infrastructure for youth in five critical areas will lead to better life outcomes for a substantial share of the youth living in that community.

The five critical areas, or "core concepts," are based on research, evaluations and theories about adolescent development. (See Appendix A for a partial bibliography.) Together, they constitute a framework around which communities can organize their efforts to build the supports and opportunities necessary to the healthy development of all adolescents. The five core concepts are:

Adult Support and Guidance. The goal is to increase the number of adults who know and interact with youth on a regular basis. This would establish more adult/youth relationships that allow young people to comfortably seek assistance, guidance and emotional support, and allow adults to more effectively monitor teens' behavior.

Gap Activities. The goal is to increase the availability of a wide range of constructive activities that are attractive to young people (depending on their age and interests), are accessible and affordable, and are held in places where youth feel safe. These activities would fill critical gap periods before and after school, on weekends and during school vacations and summers.

Work as a Developmental Tool. The goal is to increase the number and variety of paid and unpaid work experience opportunities available for young people in the neighborhood—opportunities to use skills they have; learn new skills; experience increased responsibility, autonomy and pay; receive supportive guidance from supervisors and coworkers; and see the connection between school and work.

Youth Involvement. The goal is to increase the number of opportunities for young people to participate in decision-making; plan and carry out activities; become members of teams, clubs and organizations; take on leadership roles; participate in cooperative learning and working environments; and exercise leadership in ways that build the self-confidence and initiative critical to later success.

Support through Transitions. The goal is to ensure that there is support available to youth in the neighborhood through the key transitions of adolescence. Particular attention would be paid to helping teens move from school to school, from school to jobs, and into more demanding or challenging social roles, such as dating, marriage and parenting.

These five areas do not represent everything that a particular youth may need for healthy development. They do represent fundamental supports and opportunities that all youth need, and that many youth in poor communities lack. Thus, they are the basic social infrastructure that in P/PV's judgment will produce the conditions for healthy development in the maximum number of youth. Increasing and enriching this basic social infrastructure should, over time, decrease the level of special services and programs needed for a community's youth.

The core concepts are substantively directive but not operationally prescriptive; that is, they can be carried out in many different ways, depending on the resources, needs, preferences and creativity of a particular neighborhood. Thus, they constitute a framework for action that can be used in a wide variety of communities.

In CCYD, the community itself—its adult and youth residents—is critical to determining the actual operational content that goes into meeting the substantive goals of the core concepts. Without that involvement, CCYD would most likely become yet another "youth program," dependent on outside funding and the sponsorship of one organization, rather than the dynamic, growing and changing initiative that it must be to actually change the every day conditions of a youth's life, and endure over time. Thus, the CCYD design required that a local governance structure be established and be led by residents—both adults and youth. It also required that residents be informed and mobilized around CCYD, so that they could bring their strengths and assets to bear on CCYD's internal programmatic needs, as well as its external needs for resources, support and larger policy changes.

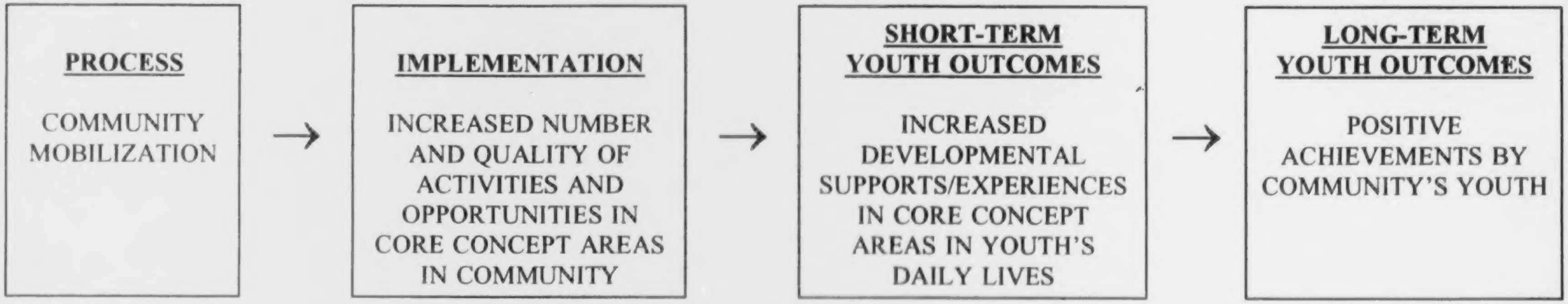
THE RESEARCH DESIGN

Just as the core concepts and the need for community leadership and involvement represent the organizing principles around which activities in the communities are planned and carried out, they also represent the theoretical framework around which the research was designed. (See Figure A.) That is, the full research agenda addresses each element of the initiative's framework: Is an effective community mobilization process established? Does it result in an increase in the number and quality of core concept activities in the community? Do these activities increase developmental supports and opportunities in young people's lives? Do increased developmental supports lead to better long-term outcomes? The research on the planning phase of the initiative focused primarily on the question of whether the framework of the core concepts, combined with resident involvement and leadership, is an effective catalyst for a process that would field high-quality, community-developed plans for rebuilding the social infrastructure for youth.

P/PV also designed CCYD with the hypothesis that a more focused substantive agenda (the core concepts) would enable sites to pursue community change at a quicker pace than that experienced by many communities that began with outcome goals but no preferred substantive directions. Defining the areas to be addressed by the communities was meant to shorten the amount of local time and energy devoted to building consensus about what to do. Naturally, there were concerns about whether this approach would appeal to communities: specifically,

Figure A

CCYD CHANGE THEORY


PROCESS
COMMUNITY MOBILIZATION
IMPLEMENTATION
INCREASED NUMBER AND QUALITY OF ACTIVITIES AND OPPORTUNITIES IN CORE CONCEPT AREAS IN COMMUNITY
SHORT-TERM YOUTH OUTCOMES
INCREASED DEVELOPMENTAL SUPPORTS/EXPERIENCES IN CORE CONCEPT AREAS IN YOUTH'S DAILY LIVES
LONG-TERM YOUTH OUTCOMES
POSITIVE ACHIEVEMENTS BY COMMUNITY'S YOUTH

whether it would significantly reduce their ownership of and commitment to the initiative; and whether the complex type of partnership needed to implement this strategy could be achieved.

To provide a fairer test of the "attractiveness" issue, P/PV offered modest resources for the six-month planning period ($10,000), and for the implementation period ($175,000 per year). Since each community involved in the CCYD research demonstration would have to build activities for several thousand youth, it seemed unlikely that CCYD's resource grants would be the sole or even the dominant factor in a community's decision to pursue CCYD.

CCYD is, then, an experiment in two regards: in whether this structured approach to community change can attract communities to attempt such an enterprise; and, if so, whether it can be implemented and lead to better lives for the adolescents living in these communities. Therefore, the planning phase of the project yielded two types of lessons: one set regarding the appeal and feasibility of the "core concepts" approach; and one set regarding whether that approach could be effectively planned and implemented in the short time frame of the demonstration.

GUIDE TO THE REPORT

The remainder of this report describes the results of the CCYD experiment through planning and early implementation: what happened, and the lessons P/PV and its community partners have learned. We provide a great deal of descriptive detail in order to document the early activities that are critical to understanding how CCYD in fact works, and its early accomplishments and challenges.

The planning and early implementation period represents only the first step in the change process; thus it is much too early to draw hard conclusions about the ultimate utility and effectiveness of the choices that were made and the strategies that were adopted. Nevertheless, even this early phase of the project produced information and lessons that are general enough to contribute to the growing literature on community initiatives.

Chapter II lays out how sites were chosen for the planning phase, what that phase entailed, and how sites were selected for implementation. Chapter III details the planning experience for the key participants—the residents (adults and youth), the local institutions and the lead agencies. Chapter IV explores how the planning experience shaped some of the early implementation challenges the sites faced. The final chapter contains reflections on the lessons of this early experience.

One further note on the content of this report is warranted. Understanding "how" a community change initiative is fielded takes on an urgency that goes well beyond traditional calls for "opening the black box" of program implementation, or simply collecting qualitative data to increase the richness of project reports. The way this type of effort is planned and structured, and the process through which it is fielded in communities, is integral to the intervention. This means the roles of all the initiative's partners should be documented—including the initiative manager's, in this case P/PV. Thus, this report also documents the key decisions P/PV made about the conduct of the demonstration.

Although it is much too early to judge the importance of CCYD's accomplishments, we hope this early information contributes to a better understanding of the process, challenges and achievements of the community change strategy—and thus is helpful to both current and future efforts around the country.

II. SITE SELECTION

The identity of the planning sites and how P/PV chose them take on an elevated degree of importance and meaning in this type of initiative. In traditional program demonstrations, the challenging site-selection process often focuses on assessing the appropriateness of a single organization. When an entire community is involved in a demonstration, however, developing criteria for selecting sites becomes even more complicated. Early meetings with professionals who had run or were running community initiatives elicited no clear-cut advice on how to best approach site-selection in this type of effort. Instead, advice ran the gamut from "site selection is the most important single factor in the success of the demonstration" to "you might as well select communities based on where you had the best dinner." When these statements were reported to a senior P/PV staff person, the response was "unfortunately, both those statements are probably true."

Although site selection is clearly more an art than a science, it is a critical factor in determining the pace and progress of a community change effort. Not only are the processes and activities of this type of demonstration complex, but they are undertaken in the complex contexts of the specific communities chosen to participate. Each community's politics, history, economy, ethnicity, geography and many other variables will all play a role in the unfolding of its quest for change. So, as a first step in any assessment of this initiative, it is important to understand the type of site P/PV was looking for to demonstrate the potential of CCYD. By the end of this report, it will be clear that even at this early stage of the demonstration, the community context plays a critical role in the effort.

SELECTING THE PLANNING SITES

Following the adage "begin as you mean to go on," key decisions about this first phase of the demonstration were: (1) to keep the strategic planning phase of CCYD relatively short; and (2) to provide small planning grants to the sites. Many community initiatives have lengthy planning and "capacity-building" phases (one to three years), and generous site grants (up to six figures) that the designers believe are required because of the comprehensive scale of change they are trying to attain. But having set the goal of testing whether CCYD could produce relatively rapid and sustainable community change, two parameters of the demonstration were set. First, a quick move to implementation seemed warranted—with the understanding that continuous planning would be part of the ongoing community process. A six-month period was designated as the formal planning period, after which sites would be expected to begin implementation if selected for the demonstration. And second, site grants were set relatively low ($10,000 for planning and $350,000 for two years of implementation) since the initiative's focus is to build on and redirect existing local resources. Central demonstration resources would be used to fund technical assistance and capacity building, to provide site grants adequate to seed activities in the neighborhoods, and to fill temporary gaps in resources.

These decisions, in turn, dictated certain criteria for selecting sites. If the expectation was for communities to move quickly through the formal planning phase and into implementation, some effort was needed to shorten the often drawn-out process of coalition- and consensus-building, and decision-making about the substance of local activities. And with the further expectation that sites would be using primarily local resources to sustain community change, it was necessary to ensure that such resources existed. Therefore, P/PV set out to identify sites that would be best positioned to meet the challenges of this initiative—that is, sites where a developmental approach to youth intervention was already evidenced; where there were some citywide and neighborhood resources to devote to CCYD—especially a strong potential lead agency with the legitimacy to do neighborhood-based work; and where there was some history of a successful collaborative approach to intervention. As one team member described it, the approach taken to demonstrate CCYD's potential was one of "buying capacity rather than building capacity from the ground up."

A reconnaissance process was used initially to identify sites, including contacting localities known to P/PV from previous work, and soliciting recommendations from funders and other experts in community work. The selection process for planning sites then entailed up to three visits by staff from P/PV for the purpose of explaining the demonstration to all interested parties, and learning about and assessing the local conditions and capacity to implement CCYD. After visiting 15 sites, those interested in pursuing involvement in the demonstration submitted "letters of interest" to P/PV, and eight were eventually selected as CCYD planning sites.

Four specific criteria were used in selecting the planning sites. First, the site needed to identify a target neighborhood that met P/PV's guidelines, namely a clearly defined area with between 1,000 and 2,000 youth aged 12 to 20; a poverty rate above 20 percent, but below 40 percent; and some existing youth resources. These conditions were set for several reasons. Since the intent of CCYD is to demonstrate the feasibility of increasing developmental supports and opportunities for all adolescents in a neighborhood within a short time period, a defined geographic area of manageable size was considered necessary in order to reach "saturation" of the neighborhood within the time frame of the demonstration. Further, since the core concept areas are considered necessary, but not necessarily sufficient for healthy adolescent development, it was also decided that the demonstration neighborhoods had to have some physical, human and institutional resources on which to build. A review of the literature showed that once the poverty rate in a community reaches 40 percent, there is significant erosion of the physical and social infrastructure that would have to be addressed before CCYD could be implemented.

Second, the sites were required to demonstrate a clear understanding of, and commitment to, the nature and goals of CCYD. During the course of the reconnaissance site visits, P/PV staff met with selected neighborhood residents and representatives from key local institutions, e.g., neighborhood associations, churches, recreation facilities, community foundations, etc., (usually at least two to three times) to ensure that they were aware of the youth development and operational principles that were to guide the initiative, and were willing to adopt them. As noted earlier, it was felt that this type of "buy-in" was critical if the initiative was to succeed, since the planning period was not intended to include an extensive process of debate and consensus-building in the community. The local actors had to believe from the outset that this initiative was a sensible and desirable way to approach addressing the needs of their adolescents.

Third, the sites were required to form an interim planning/steering group that P/PV staff could meet with during reconnaissance visits and that could serve as the core planning team, if selected. The sites were asked to include in this group residents, both youth and adult, of the target neighborhood; representatives of organizations and/or institutions that were considered key neighborhood resources; and any other groups or organizations seen to be critical to CCYD's success.

Finally, the sites were asked to identify and list the major resources they intended to draw on in the course of implementing CCYD. These inventories included the physical resources of the community, neighborhood organizations and institutions, resource individuals and organizations from beyond the neighborhood, and potential sources of financial support.

Throughout this process, P/PV was keenly aware of the importance of having a lead agency with expertise in working with adolescents; familiarity with the neighborhood selected as the target area for the demonstration; and sufficient legitimacy with neighborhood residents and organizations to take the lead in a complex partnership. But it was an open question as to what type of organization could be most effective in this role. Given the nature of the initiative, governmental or quasi-governmental entities, community-based youth-serving organizations and community coalitions all seemed to have critical capacities and relevant expertise necessary for implementing CCYD; and all seemed to have the potential to function as effective lead agencies. Therefore, in selecting sites for reconnaissance visits and for the planning process, P/PV attempted to maintain a mixture of these lead agency "types" in order to explore whether different types of agencies/organizations would be effective in carrying out CCYD. This resulted in the selection of a diverse group of eight sites that began the CCYD planning process in early 1995. These planning sites are briefly described in Table 1.

THE PLANNING PROCESS

Each of the CCYD partners—neighborhood residents, community institutions and P/PV—had clear roles to perform during the planning process. In order for CCYD to be viable, local residents and institutions had to be committed enough to devote the time and resources necessary to produce a high-quality implementation plan in a relatively short time; and to do so in a manner that demonstrated the community's willingness and ability to make the youth and adults of the neighborhood true partners.

The process and activities that constituted the planning effort in each site are detailed in the next section of this report. But there were fundamental activities required of all the sites'

Table 1

THE PLANNING SITES

San Francisco, California

Neighborhood: The Mission District
Lead Agency: The Community Peace Initiative (CPI)

CPI is a broadly based collaborative of public agencies, community-based institutions, private-sector associations and residents, located in the Mission District of San Francisco. The CPI collaborative came together three years ago with funds from several California foundations to mobilize the Mission community and advocate for health and safety for all residents, especially youth. Within the Mission, the CCYD target area was identified as six contiguous census tracks. The area is 84 percent Latino; the poverty rate is 22 percent. CPI saw the CCYD initiative as an opportunity to move beyond advocacy toward the development of a youth infrastructure that could provide real supports for young people in the Mission community.

St. Petersburg, Florida

Neighborhood: Childs Park
Lead Agency: Juvenile Welfare Board of Pinellas County (JWB)

The Juvenile Welfare Board is an independent taxing authority that annually contracts for social services to families and children and has excellent contacts across the various sectors of the local community. Childs Park is 83 percent African American and has a 27 percent poverty rate. As a first step in the planning, a neighborhood design team made up of Childs Park residents was formed to work with JWB. JWB sees CCYD as a possible prototype for a communitywide youth development initiative.

Savannah, Georgia

Neighborhood: Four Census Tracts of Area C, in Savannah
Lead Agency: The Chatham-Savannah Youth Futures Authority (YFA)

The Youth Futures Authority is a 43-member, community-based collaboration of public and private-sector institutions and private citizens; the Authority was formed in 1988 to operate the Casey Youth Futures effort in Savannah. "Area C" is the area where YFA has traditionally focused all its efforts; 94 percent of the population are African American and the poverty rate is 35 percent. Additional residents of Area C were added to assure adequate resident involvement in the CCYD planning process. YFA's overall vision is to develop strategies that assure every child in Chatham County is born and grows up healthy; it plans to use the CCYD framework to develop necessary supports for adolescents and young adults.

Table 1 (continued)

THE PLANNING SITES

Boston, Massachusetts

Neighborhood: Egleston Square
Lead Agency: The Egleston Square Coalition, Ecumenical Social Action Council (ESAC)

ESAC is a grassroots coalition, formed in 1991, of 34 disparate neighborhood and resident organizations. The Egleston community is approximately 50 percent African American and 36 percent Latino; the poverty rate is 32 percent. Together, ESAC organizations already offered numerous youth development activities to the neighborhood; CCYD was seen as a way to enhance and expand existing youth activity.

Minneapolis, Minnesota

Neighborhood: Whittier
Lead Agency: The Whittier Alliance

The Whittier Alliance is a nonprofit neighborhood development organization governed by a board of directors that is 60 percent residents. Key partners with the Alliance are the City of Minneapolis through the Youth Coordinating Board and the Minneapolis Foundation. The Whittier neighborhood is 63 percent white and 26 percent black—the remainder of residents represent a variety of nationalities. Thirty-eight percent of the population is poor. The CCYD core concepts provide the organizing, programmatic framework for a long-term commitment to Whittier being made by the Minneapolis Foundation—titled Building Better Futures.

Kansas City, Missouri

Neighborhood: Blue Hills
Lead Agency: YouthNet

YouthNet is a citywide collaboration of 19 social service organizations. The organization, founded in 1988, is designed to coordinate various youth development activities across Kansas City. Prior to its interest in CCYD, YouthNet was involved in a wide range of developmental activities for high-risk youth, such as a neighborhood Block Leaders program. Blue Hills is 95 percent African American; about a quarter of the residents are poor. YouthNet's goal is to use CCYD activity in Blue Hills as a model to promote and coordinate youth development activity in other Kansas City neighborhoods.

Table 1 (continued)

THE PLANNING SITES

New York, New York

Neighborhood: Lower East Side
Lead Agency: Three settlement houses, Grand Street, University and Henry Street, under the umbrella of the United Neighborhood Houses

Specifically, the area directly surrounding the Grand St. Settlement, but generally adjacent to all three settlement houses, was the target for CCYD planning; 66 percent of the residents are Latino and 25 percent are African American. The poverty rate is 36 percent. The three settlements are among the oldest youth and family service organizations in the country and see their CCYD collaboration as an opportunity to improve their service delivery and strengthen youth development opportunities for young people in the target area.

Austin, Texas

Neighborhood: South Central East Austin
Lead Agency: Austin/Travis County Health and Human Services Department, Community Services Division (CSD)

The County Community Service Division formed a partnership with Austin Interfaith, a grassroots community organization, to lead the CCYD effort. The specific area of East Austin targeted for CCYD is the attendance zones of three elementary schools. Eighty-one percent of the residents are Latino and 37 percent are poor. The Austin CSD has a history of active commitment and responsiveness to youth issues and community needs, and brought to the partnership its network of supports and services for youth and families. Austin Interfaith concentrates its community-organizing efforts on the core neighborhood institutions—schools and churches—and has a proven capacity to mobilize residents to act on their own behalf.

local residents and lead agency representatives: adoption of the core concepts and creation of preliminary implementation strategies for each; expansion of an inventory of existing resources; and development of a structure and guidelines for a community-driven, permanent governance group that would be responsible for decision-making if the site were selected for implementation.

The $10,000 planning grants were intended only to defray some of the sites' planning costs. P/PV's main role as a partner was to work with the sites in areas where they needed technical assistance and support, since this was how the partnership was envisioned to work from planning through implementation.

Three technical assistance strategies were used during planning: guidance from P/PV field staff, on-site workshops (retreats) and cross-site conferences. Field staff made (at a minimum) monthly visits to each site—generally arranged to coincide with meetings of the local planning group—to inform, support and monitor the development of its CCYD strategic plan.

Early in the planning process, field and technical assistance staff facilitated retreats at each site for representatives of the local project partners—residents (adults and youth), the lead agency, and other involved organizations and institutions. At these retreats, the core planning groups and others from the community together developed initial ideas about how CCYD and the core concepts might be implemented in the local context. These sessions usually produced general frameworks the sites would use to guide the rest of the planning process and develop the local CCYD strategic plan.

Finally, P/PV sponsored two conferences for all planning sites. The first, early in the planning period, was attended largely by representatives of the lead agencies and was mainly devoted to an overview of the demonstration; a discussion of the core concepts and the types of local activities that might express each; the research and technical assistance strategies; and the requirements of the strategic plan. The second cross-site conference, held midway through the planning period, addressed sites' requests for information and support on specific issues that had surfaced during local planning efforts. Since the planning teams in most sites were well-established by this time, neighborhood residents, including youth, were key participants in this meeting, whose sessions addressed issues that cut across the critical components of the CCYD process and the core concepts. Workshop topics included: governance strategies; encouraging and sustaining neighborhood resident involvement; creating "central places" for neighborhood activity; financing CCYD; and generating work opportunities for youth.

At the conclusion of the six-month formal planning process, each site submitted a plan that set forth its long-term vision for CCYD; its first-year implementation plan for activities/efforts in each core concept area; progress benchmarks to be assessed at quarterly meetings with P/PV; its intended governance structure; and its available resources to support CCYD implementation. These plans constituted one component in the site-selection process.

SELECTING THE IMPLEMENTATION SITES

As was true in site-selection for the planning phase, selecting sites for implementation was not wholly a "paper review" process. The underlying theory of CCYD comprises two major hypotheses: (1) that community mobilization is necessary to achieve lasting community change; and (2) that rebuilding opportunities in the core concept areas will lead to a healthier passage through adolescence and, ultimately, to better long-term outcomes. Therefore, both how the planning process was conducted (community mobilization) and the content of the sites' written proposals (ideas embodying the core concept areas) were the major bases for selecting the implementation sites. That is, in judging the sites' readiness to implement CCYD, equal emphasis was placed on the quality of the core concept implementation strategies contained in the strategic plans, and on the communities' ability to mobilize and significantly involve residents early in the project. The role of the community's residents in the first phase of the project was seen as a crucial signal of the intent to form an effective partnership between the lead agency and residents, and of a commitment to "doing business differently" (both necessary ingredients for real community change).

In October 1995, P/PV staff met to decide which, if any, of the planning sites appeared to have both the community-driven process and strategic ideas considered necessary to move immediately into implementation after six months of planning. Sites were found to fall into one of three categories: those that could begin implementation formally in January 1996; those that were not yet ready to move to implementation, but might soon be, given further effort; and those that were not in a position to implement CCYD.

There was clear consensus that Austin, St. Petersburg and Savannah had the necessary process and content ingredients, and were ready to move forward. Their core concept implementation ideas were judged to be feasible and of high quality; and they had put in significant effort, and made substantial progress, in involving neighborhood residents in the planning process. They were designated full implementation and research sites and are receiving $350,000 in direct site grants supplemented by field support and technical assistance from P/PV over two years.

Another group of sites—Kansas City, Minneapolis and New York—had made significant progress either in establishing a community-driven process or in generating sound, creative ideas for implementing the core concepts, but not both. The lead agencies in Kansas City and New York had not yet made substantial progress toward involving the neighborhoods' residents in the planning process; and the Minneapolis plan reflected a need to spend more time developing specific ideas for implementing the core concepts. A decision was made to continue to support these sites in a more limited way, and they were designated as "capacity-building sites." Each is receiving a $75,000 site grant and technical assistance targeting specific needs identified jointly by the site and P/PV.

The two remaining sites—Boston and San Francisco—are not continuing in the demonstration. In both sites, the lead agencies (both community coalitions) needed to devote their time and resources to non-CCYD coalition work (e.g., expansion, political agendas, leadership changes). The rapid pace and intensity of the CCYD demonstration would have placed demands on these groups that had the potential to conflict with their ongoing missions.

Over the course of the planning period, preliminary process and content data were collected at all eight sites. But at the time of site selection, P/PV had to make a decision about whether to complete detailed planning-phase research (including four staff weeks of on-site data collection) at all the planning sites. A number of factors were considered.

The greatest value in implementing the full research design at all eight sites and drawing comparisons among them would be to highlight why the "capacity-building" sites were proceeding at a slower pace than the implementation sites, and why the fit between the CCYD demonstration and the other two sites was ill-timed. But even without detailed research, the differences among the sites were fairly apparent and basic.

The New York lead agency is a coalition of three settlement houses on the Lower East Side. While they had been working together for years on joint programming and funding, each had maintained its own distinct catchment area. But one of CCYD's fundamental requirements is to pick one defined geographic area as the target neighborhood. Before any other planning work could be done, a strategy for defining roles for the different organizations to work together in one geographic area had to be developed; this task took considerable thought and time and shortened further (in the already brief six-month planning period) the time available to move into the community and involve residents in the planning process.

In Kansas City, YouthNet, a collaborative composed of service providers and policymakers, underwent top-level staffing changes, significant expansion and some financial challenges during the CCYD planning period, all of which served to decrease the amount of time and attention that could be devoted to the CCYD planning process. Hence, this site too was unable to make adequate progress in significantly involving neighborhood residents.

In Minneapolis, where considerable resources exist (in terms of funding and youth organizations), the lead agency is a collaboration of the Office of the Mayor, the Minneapolis Foundation and the Whittier Alliance (a neighborhood association). While they were able to involve neighborhood residents in planning (by virtue of the inclusion of the Alliance), they had to devote a significant amount of time to determining the best structure for governing and proceeding with CCYD. Thus, their process was inclusive of residents, but did not extend to elaborating ideas for implementing the core concepts.

In San Francisco, the lead agency was a relatively new community coalition that had a great deal to do to establish itself in the city and make progress on its basic agenda. The coalition believed that while CCYD was an initiative they were interested in attempting, the timing of participating in a demonstration would distract from their core mission. And in Boston, changes in the Egleston coalition's leadership made it impossible to sustain the effort required to move quickly through a complex planning process: the head of the community coalition left the position early in the CCYD planning phase; an acting director with other full-time coalition responsibilities was appointed during the middle of the planning period; and a new permanent director was appointed only at the end of the planning phase. These changes made focusing on the CCYD demonstration's demands secondary to the need to continue existing functions of the coalition.

In the "capacity-building" sites, the planning period was extended to determine whether, with more time and technical assistance, they would be able to achieve both requirements (process and content) of CCYD planning and position themselves to move into implementation. Under these conditions, it is difficult to draw lessons about, or conclusions from, their planning experience, since the planning process and story are still unfolding. Therefore, the decision was made to conduct detailed research only at the sites moving immediately into implementation.

The remainder of this report is devoted to the experiences of the three full implementation sites and how they accomplished the challenging task of getting under way a community-driven process that produced high-quality plans in a relatively short period. The lead agencies had to develop new ways of working in these neighborhoods—ways that represented a significant departure from their usual methods. The residents of these neighborhoods took on new roles and responsibilities and developed relationships with lead agency staff and with each other. And this was done in neighborhoods with a history of significant poverty and the difficulties associated with economic impoverishment. (See Table 2 for 1990 economic indicators.)

The data for the analyses of this phase of the demonstration were collected from the following sources: monthly structured interviews with the sites' P/PV field representatives; observations, interviews and focus groups conducted during site visits by P/PV research staff; observations at the cross-site conferences held during the planning phase; and attendance at P/PV team meetings, where the progress and challenges of each site were discussed twice a month.

Table 2

CCYD IMPLEMENTATION SITES' ECONOMIC CONDITIONS
1990

	AUSTIN (East Austin)	ST. PETERSBURG (Childs Park)	SAVANNAH (Area C)
Individual poverty rate	22.7%	35.3%	40%
Under 18 poverty rate	35	45	53
Female-headed households with children under 18	22	24	15
Age 18+ with less than high school education	39	43	66
Unemployment rate	3	12	11
Not in labor force	33	37	45

Source: 1990 Census Data

III. PLANNING CCYD

One of the early, pressing questions of this demonstration was whether CCYD was a viable approach for stimulating a community change process. It was unclear whether the more structured framework of this approach would be embraced by communities, or be seen as an imposition of priorities that would foreclose true community ownership. And it was unclear whether a productive, three-way partnership—among the neighborhood residents, local institutions and a national organization—could be forged quickly enough to yield early evidence about whether CCYD could work. The communities were expected to develop local governance involving neighborhood residents, marshall the resources of local neighborhood institutions, and begin to develop initiative leadership by finding a balance between lead agency and resident control. In short, they needed to operationalize the critical infrastructure for the entire initiative during the planning period.

Three communities were able to make substantial progress. Their methods and experiences represent a valuable opportunity to reflect on "what it took" on the part of the three partners to engage in a successful community planning effort. This chapter details how neighborhood residents were involved in the planning process; their experiences; and the balance of control between the lead agencies and the residents in that process.

NEIGHBORHOOD RESIDENTS

CCYD's guidelines for planning required that adult and youth residents from the target neighborhoods be involved in the planning process. This component was emphasized at the cross-site conferences and during visits by P/PV field representatives. However, decisions about who the sites involved and how they went about it were left to the local lead agencies. The unfolding of this process proved very instructive to both the local partners and P/PV.

The Adults

Recruiting neighborhood adults and sustaining their involvement in the planning process were prime challenges for this phase of the demonstration. Each of the sites selected for implementation was chosen, in part, because it had demonstrated a recognition of the importance of resident involvement in achieving lasting community change, and a commitment to finding ways to forge partnerships between the lead agencies and residents. That is, all three sites were considered successful in achieving this goal.

In all cases, success was related to a history of linkages between the lead agency and the community, and past experience with grassroots organizing. This history clearly affected the recruitment methods used and the manner in which residents were involved in the process. This, in turn, affected the number of adults involved in the process and the depth of their involvement. This part of the planning process was further influenced by each community's context, including its history with organized resident groups, and the physical layout and resources of the neighborhood.

In St. Petersburg, the Juvenile Welfare Board of Pinellas County (JWB) was the lead agency for planning. The JWB is an independent taxing authority that contracts for services for families and children throughout the county. As such, it has worked primarily with service agencies and had no real history of organizing residents or sustaining a community-driven planning process, although the JWB had worked with the St. Petersburg community and service providers on planning another community change initiative (the Pew Children's Initiative) and had formed "community councils" to advise them on the needs of families and children.

Further, the target neighborhood of Childs Park is one that reportedly had not had a history of resident activism or many organized resident groups. For example, the Neighborhood Association was formed only in 1992 to participate in the city's neighborhood-based revitalization project. As part of that project, the association was given a $100,000 discretionary grant; when advertised in the association newsletter with a request to formulate ideas about how to spend the money, the president reported receiving not "one single phone call." One respondent believes that the lack of activism in this neighborhood stems from the fact that it is "a neighborhood forgotten for a long time." As an example, he noted that the roads had been paved for the first time only 15 years ago.

Given these conditions, the JWB's early recruitment strategy was essentially a "snowball method." That is, residents of Childs Park who were known to JWB staff who lived in the neighborhood or were familiar with the agencies there were invited to attend one or two early informational meetings to learn about CCYD. The attendees were asked to bring to later meetings other residents who might be interested in planning. JWB took the further step of assigning to the project a full-time staff person with a history of grassroots organizing and linkages to the CCYD neighborhood.

Using these methods, CCYD planning meetings were attended by 30 to 40 people, including JWB staff, city staff and residents. But the make-up of the resident group varied from meeting to meeting and attendance tailed off toward the end of the planning period. The process did, however, yield a core group of between 10 and 15 residents who consistently attended meetings held about every two weeks during the most active planning period to develop "core concept teams" and implementation ideas and plans. Each core concept team had a leader (usually a resident) who reported to the larger group the ideas they were developing. This process was overseen by an Executive Committee composed of eight people, four of whom were neighborhood residents. This committee met weekly during the most active part of the planning phase.

Both residents and staff we interviewed talked about efforts made to maximize the participation of neighborhood residents. Phone calls were made to remind people of meetings, child care and food were provided for each meeting, and meetings were kept to one or one and a half hours. However, we were also told that the meeting time, 6:30 p.m. on weekdays, did prevent some participation because of conflicts with work or other obligations. The active residents we interviewed attributed the fall-off in participation later in the planning process to the fact that the time demands were too great—meetings were too long or too frequent, or people couldn't attend the weekend retreats; or the belief that people get "bored" or "uninterested" in planning but will return when they see real activities; or the fact that sometimes the whole process could "get on your nerves"; or, again, conflicting obligations in many residents' lives. We were unable to discuss directly the reasons that people dropped out of the process because the less active residents did not show up for a scheduled focus group meeting.

Resident involvement was also influenced by the physical layout and space resources in the community. While Childs Park is the largest CCYD neighborhood in the demonstration—about 2.4 square miles consisting of over 300 blocks—it has relatively few physical resources for youth. In fact, one of the few is the park itself, which early became the central focus of CCYD. All the planning meetings were held in the park's City Recreation Center building (one of the few available public meeting spaces), located in the south central part of this extensive neighborhood. Consequently, we were told, most of the residents who participated in this process live near the park, leaving a large area of the community unrepresented.

There were attempts made during planning to "get the word out" and broaden participation. Over this period, three town meetings were held to publicize CCYD. Both the staff and residents we interviewed reported being "disappointed" with the turnout at the first two meetings. Between 30 and 40 people came to these meetings, and some were those who had already been involved in CCYD planning. These meetings were publicized through flyers, a mailing to all neighborhood addresses (provided by the Neighborhood Association) and phone calls. The third town meeting was also publicized on a local black-owned radio station and reportedly had a better turnout (estimates ranged from 40 to 100).

The one outreach event that exceeded everyone's expectations was a Fun Day held in the park in April 1995. This event, cofunded by CCYD and the City Department of Recreation, was a day of food, games and sports (including a petting zoo, carnival games and free barbecue) and was attended by about 1,000 adults and youth. This event was widely publicized in the newspapers and on radio and was broadcast live on a radio station. The CCYD steering committee members passed out fliers with information about CCYD, distributed questionnaires asking for input on core concept implementation strategies (completed by about 300 people), and registered the names and addresses of 180 CCYD-aged youth and over 500 neighborhood adults.

Overall, there seem to be mixed feelings about the success of outreach efforts to include residents in planning. The staff at JWB expressed more concern at having missed parts of the neighborhood than did the residents, but all felt that it was vital to step up efforts in this area in the future. As one staff person noted, St. Petersburg was "more successful in getting a community-developed plan, than in [managing] a widely engaging community process"; that is, the residents who did participate were responsible for the plan, but the entire neighborhood was not represented on the planning team.

In Savannah, the Chatham-Savannah Youth Futures Authority (YFA) acted as the lead agency for CCYD planning. The YFA is a collaborative board consisting of public and private agency heads and residents, and was formed under The Annie E. Casey Foundation's New Futures Initiative. This collaborative has been in existence since 1988, aiming to have adults, institutions and parents work collectively to help youth achieve healthy adulthood. The YFA has a direct link to the target neighborhood through its work in establishing the Family Resource Center (FRC). The FRC is a community-based collaborative center where programs, services and caseworkers for neighborhood families are located and many community group meetings are held; but its catchment area and the target neighborhood for CCYD (called "Area C") are defined by census boundaries rather than social or natural geographic boundaries. While there are formal neighborhood associations within the target area's boundaries, we were told by a lifelong resident of the neighborhood that "named neighborhoods are a city planning creation" rather than a social reality, and that if we were to ask someone where they lived they would tell us "their street"—not a neighborhood.

Since the Youth Futures Authority had a relationship with an existing resident advisory board for the FRC, this group was used to recruit residents for the CCYD planning process. Letters inviting residents to work on the CCYD plan were sent to anyone who had attended an FRC advisory group meeting in the past. During the first three months of CCYD planning, meetings were held every two weeks; during the second half of planning, meetings were held monthly. On average, we were told meetings were attended by about 15 adult residents, about five agency staff and between 10 and 20 youth. We were told that only about five to seven adult residents were consistently involved in the planning process.

The Area C "neighborhood" is one square mile comprising 264 blocks. Like Childs Park in St. Petersburg, the area has very limited space resources, which is one reason the Family Resource Center is used for meetings by a wide variety of community and service agency groups. It was also the locus of all of the CCYD planning meetings. The FRC is located near the center of the CCYD target area. Since there was no other outreach to residents during the CCYD planning period, and the numbers participating at the centrally located meetings was relatively small, it is clear that information about CCYD had not spread too far into the neighborhood. In fact, most of the YFA staff we interviewed expressed concern over the narrowness of adult resident involvement in planning, and defined that as an area to address during early implementation.

In Austin, the Community Services Division (CSD) of the Austin-Travis County Health and Human Services Department and Austin Interfaith were the co-lead agencies for planning. CSD has responsibility for contracting for all city services for youth and families; in this role, the staff have become familiar with most of the city's youth service providers and with the different neighborhoods. CSD had attempted to organize a community planning process in the past (as part of the Empowerment Zone application process), and staff found that as a city department, they could not be as successful as they wanted to be in this role. As a result, they formed a partnership for CCYD with an organization whose mission is grassroots organizing. Austin Interfaith (AI) is a nonprofit membership organization that is part of the Industrial Areas Foundation, whose mission is to organize community institutions and residents for political action. Some of the churches in East Austin (the CCYD neighborhood) are member institutions of AI, and a number of the schools have also worked with AI.

The East Austin neighborhood is about 1.5 square miles and consists of about 175 blocks. It has a number of very active neighborhood associations and organizations, churches and schools that are actively involved in community issues, and an apparently large pool of community leaders who are active in, and vocal about, community and political matters. Each of these groups proved to be a resource that could be drawn on in the site's efforts to involve neighborhood adults in planning for CCYD.

Perhaps related to the history and degree of activism in this community, and the "turf" issues and power struggles we were told are very much a part of the history of East Austin, this site took an approach to planning that was somewhat different than those in the other sites. They chose to spend more than half the planning period (three out of five months)[1] informing the community about CCYD; soliciting input from residents about their concerns and priorities for youth to see whether there was support for CCYD; and recruiting people to work on planning what came to be called the East Austin Youth Charter. Austin Interfaith has long-established community-organizing methods for mobilizing residents for political action, a number of which were adapted and used for CCYD planning. AI had been working with the institutions and residents of East Austin for about 12 years and had a pool of active resident leaders to draw on to begin the process of informing and recruiting others.

One method used by AI members to recruit residents was a "neighborhood walk." The neighborhood was broken into zones and the "walkers" went door to door on each assigned block with a brief questionnaire about what people would like to see in the neighborhood for children, and with information about the core concepts. They also asked whether individuals would be interested in/willing to host a "house meeting" for their neighbors where the CCYD Youth Charter could be discussed, and/or whether they would be interested in working on one of the "action teams," each of which would plan activities in one of the core concept areas. About 46 households were visited during the walk, and six house meetings were held for 32 people to learn about CCYD.

During the neighborhood walk, through flier distributions and church and school newsletter announcements, residents were also invited to attend community meetings to discuss CCYD and its role in the neighborhood. In contrast to the other sites, these meetings were held in different locations around the neighborhood at churches and schools, thus drawing in people from different parts of the community. Six of these community meetings were held in the first three months of planning. The earlier meetings had 20 to 25 people in attendance; in the third month, attendance ranged from 45 to 80. At these later meetings, residents were asked to sign up to work on "action teams" and/or to host "house meetings" with their neighbors; reports indicate that about 65 people did so at the last two meetings.

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[1] There were two cohorts of planning sites selected for CCYD. Austin was part of the second cohort and, therefore, had a shorter planning period that the other sites (five instead of six months).

A leadership team composed of city staff from the CSD, AI staff and residents had decided to have each action team meet about three times over the fourth month of planning in order to bring input to a planning retreat that would flesh out ideas for the strategic plan. The five action teams each reportedly had from 10 to 15 members, and each member was asked to survey five other residents about their ideas. There was also another neighborhood walk for which each action team had written one question to ask about its core concept. About 35 people participated in this walk.

The planning retreat, which was held over a Friday night and Saturday, was attended by about 50 people and resulted in a listing of the core concept implementation strategies that ultimately ended up in the strategic plan. This draft "Youth Charter" was then presented to the community for reaction through another neighborhood walk; suggestions and reactions from the walk were incorporated into the Charter at a meeting of 30 adults and youth who had collected the information.

At the end of this process, further outreach efforts were made to present the Youth Charter (CCYD plan) to a variety of groups for feedback. These included a community meeting, attended by about 40 residents; presentations at two school PTA meetings; a presentation to the faculty at a junior high school in the neighborhood; and a final "Issues Conference," at which people were given the opportunity to make "final edits" to the plan.

Despite the relatively broad involvement of residents in this site, both residents and staff reported concerns about their success. Some felt they should have involved more—and different types of—residents in planning. Some neighborhood organizations reportedly felt they, and others like them, were not involved enough in the planning process because AI was responsible for community mobilization and worked only through organizations or institutions to which it was historically connected. Others felt these complaints would be heard no matter who was responsible for the process, because "everyone wants control." Some participants talked about the need to involve neighborhood churches with smaller congregations; and some talked about the need to involve those unaffiliated with any neighborhood institution. Finally, as in the other sites, some felt that resident involvement decreased later in the planning period because people are only willing to "plan" for a limited time, then want to see things happen.

The Youth

Involving young people in planning and making decisions about communitywide issues is a practice that runs counter to adult culture—it challenges most adults' instinctive/parental desire to do "what's best" for youth. Genuinely sharing power and control with community adults is not a common practice, but there are models for doing so (e.g., community boards, coalitions). Accomplishing this with youth often means you "learn as you go." Nevertheless, P/PV and the sites were committed to finding a way to implement this critical component during planning. The most general lesson from the planning experience can be simply summed up as: this is an important, and worthwhile, activity—for both the youth and the adults involved—but it is a challenge to do it well. During the six months of CCYD planning, sites began this learning process.

Sharing power with teenagers requires an openness and flexibility in approach that allows for quick adjustments to be made as young people begin actively to shape their own roles. During planning, the CCYD sites tried to make these adjustments, based on youth's reactions to being involved in planning, as they worked at trying to find effective methods for involving young people as partners in the process. The course of the planning experience in this area also had a clear effect on the early implementation challenges faced by the sites (explored in the next chapter).

In St. Petersburg, finding an effective way to involve youth in planning proved to be an area where the site took "one step forward, two steps backward," despite the mid-course adjustments that were made. The original strategy was to recruit young people to work on planning alongside adults, through the use of the Teen Council that existed at the City Recreation Center in Childs Park. However, city staff had difficulty keeping youth involved and active in the council, at least in part because there was no staff person with time dedicated to support this group. When the adults saw that only a small number of youth (estimated at about five teens) were actually attending planning meetings, they decided to have "representatives" from the Teen Council attend CCYD planning meetings and report back to other youth at separate Teen Council meetings. But according to reports from both adults and youth, this strategy was also ineffective. First, the Teen Council did not hold regular meetings. In addition, the teens reported that few of them went to planning meetings, that when they did attend, they did not understand what was going on, that the adults did not ask them what they thought about things, and that they did not report back to other youth when Teen Council meetings were held. The adults, having recognized that this strategy was not proving effective, decided during planning that, for implementation, a full-time coordinator should be hired to mobilize and involve teens in CCYD, as was done with adult residents during planning.

The site did, however, use another strategy—a survey—to identify community youth's priorities for activities in their community, and some adults reported being surprised by the results. A survey was used during the Fun Day in the park to elicit the opinions of teenagers about what was needed in their community. Reportedly, the top priorities were: "money-making opportunities," a swimming pool, and sports opportunities. The CCYD plan for the first year reflected these priorities. While it did not include a swimming pool (because of prohibitive cost estimates), it did include a well-developed plan for a Sports Academy (linking sports and education) and plans to develop more work and entrepreneurship opportunities for youth.

Savannah, in contrast, found that the desire of youth to participate in the planning process far exceeded adults' expectations. This too required the site to make mid-course adjustments.

Originally, Youth Futures Authority (YFA) staff had planned to hold a few focus groups with youth at the Family Resource Center to elicit their ideas about what they wanted to see in the community. They recruited youth for the "brainstorming" sessions by asking young people who were at the FRC (as part of the Boys and Girls Club program) to participate and bring their friends. These sessions were attended by 20 to 25 youth and resulted in a prioritized list of the activities youth wanted to see in the neighborhood. As in Childs Park, some adults were surprised by some of the high-priority items, such as money-making opportunities, cultural activities (e.g., dance, theater, art), and Bible studies.

The youth reportedly became so engaged in this process that they started to attend the "adult" meetings held at the FRC, contradicting the adults' prediction that youth would be "bored" by them. When it was noticed that "the kids were outnumbering the adults" at the planning meetings, a decision was made to hold separate youth and adult meetings in alternate weeks. While about 20 youth did consistently attend these "youth council" meetings that were facilitated by two caseworkers, some teens also continued to attend the "adult" meetings and participated in the small-group core concept planning teams.

This may be explained, at least in part, by one strategy used by YFA. In order to maintain the youth's interest and participation, and to "build trust" in the process, YFA staff decided to respond in small ways to some of the teens' requests early on, in order to "get them to believe [CCYD] is real." For example, the youth requested pizza for their meetings despite the fact that a hot meal is served at the FRC each evening; pizza was provided. One of the most surprising requests, for a Bible study group, was addressed by setting one up during planning, though the teens later decided they would rather do other things. Plans for a gymnasium renovation were changed to reflect the teens' request for an area for dance and theater classes and events. And, finally, the teens were entrusted with planning and implementing the FRC's first-year anniversary party and awards ceremony.

The concerns expressed by adult residents and staff regarding youth involvement in CCYD planning centered around the lack of outreach to "other" teens. Since the youth who participated were the ones "already comfortable coming through the doors" of the FRC, adults expressed some regret over not holding focus groups with other youth around the community, and possibly not representing their interests. There was also concern that the now "tight-knit" group of teens who participated in planning might "come to see CCYD as something just for them."

Austin's experience with involving youth in planning had elements of the experiences of both the other sites. Early in the planning period, discussion groups were held to elicit youth's ideas about what was needed in the community. Members of AI and some adults who worked with youth in programs ran these groups. During the period when the community meetings were being held, youth were attending with their parents—but separate counts of young people in attendance were unavailable. Youth also participated in the neighborhood walks, held to inform residents about CCYD and to ask their opinions about what was needed in the community.

When the Action Teams were formed, youth signed up to participate in the meetings with adults. Reports indicate that between seven and 15 youth were part of the Action Teams planning implementation strategies. After attending the Action Team meetings, youth also participated in the retreat that reached consensus on strategies for the draft plan (Youth Charter).

According to the youth we interviewed at the end of the planning period, they had requested that a separate youth meeting be held when the number of youth attending the planning meetings with adults increased. They wanted the opportunity to react to and discuss the ideas drafted at the planning retreat. A meeting was organized and youth were recruited through the institutions (churches and schools) participating in planning, and by the active youth themselves. A separate youth meeting, with about 45 teens in attendance, was facilitated by an AI staff person. The group reviewed the ideas in the draft plan, concurred with them, and expressed concerns about their continuing role in shaping the Youth Charter. They suggested that they have their own meetings and a retreat for youth, and these events were scheduled. Records show that about 15 youth attended the retreat and two additional youth meetings were held.

In addition to attending the separate youth meetings, some youth also continued to participate in meetings with adults. When the "Issues Conference" was held to discuss the final content of the plan, a separate break-out session was scheduled for young people and attended by eight youth, who then reported their ideas and opinions to the adults. The teens told us that they felt they had significant input into the CCYD plan, and that what was in the Charter went "through the youth" for approval. They reported that when they attend meetings with adults, the "adults ask kids what they thought about things." They said they "liked the fact that (adults) were asking kids what they needed" because there are "a lot of programs for people in trouble, or A students" but that "not a lot of programs or adults will ask what we feel or what we want." They reported that all their ideas were incorporated into the Charter, except one—a request for a center with computers.

These youth also said that they felt it was important that the churches were involved in the planning process, and that they liked having meetings at churches, where youth "respect it and don't disrespect each other." They cited as an example one planning meeting at a church where youth "from two different gangs (attended) and worked together."

As in Savannah, adults and youth expressed concerns about youth involvement that centered around the issues of inclusion and representativeness. Since the youth who were involved in the planning process were, for the most part, either linked to community institutions or were the children of adults who were active in planning, there was concern that the ideas in the plan may not appeal to all the teens in the neighborhood. During planning, a decision was made to hire for implementation a "youth organizer," who would be the counterpart to the AI adult organizer.

Lessons from the Resident-Involvement Experience

While the paths taken by the lead agencies to involve residents in the CCYD planning process clearly differed, a few general lessons can be drawn from these sites' experiences.

First and foremost, any serious effort to partner with community residents, both adults and youth, is a significant challenge for the institutions involved, and requires a significant concentration of effort and resources if it is to succeed. The linchpins to success in these sites seemed to be: (1) expertise in community/grassroots organizing, and (2) the dedication of staff time to this aspect of planning. While staff time can be devoted to this activity as long as the lead agency has the resources to do so, the agency's existing mission and experience in community organizing can clearly affect the nature of this process.

In Austin, where the largest number of adults participated in the planning process, and where the broadest community outreach occurred, the co-lead agency's (Austin Interfaith) expertise in and commitment to community involvement was clearly integral to the site's success in this area. In St. Petersburg, where there was a smaller—but dedicated—group of adults who stuck with the planning process, and where outreach to the broader community was beginning, there was a full-time staff person, experienced in grassroots organizing, dedicated to the process of working with the residents. Savannah, which had the most difficulty bringing a significant number of adults into the planning process, did not have the benefit of institutional expertise, nor the resources to recruit and dedicate a full-time staff person in this area.

In all three sites, the adults reported that their lack of experience with involving youth in such an effort made this task particularly challenging. In two of the sites, the planning experience brought the adults to conclude that if youth are to be substantially involved in this type of effort, they need to devote focused attention and support—in the form of an adult facilitator/support person—to making it happen. Even without the benefit of this "hindsight" during planning, the response of the teens in Savannah and Austin to being asked by adults what they think should happen in their communities made it clear that they are a resource well worth the effort to tap in working to change communities. Youth may need a separate forum for some of their activities and meetings, especially to prepare themselves to better understand and participate in joint meetings with adults. But they also responded positively to the opportunity to work alongside the adults in their communities, and maintained their involvement in what might seem a "boring" process when they felt the adults were really listening to them.

Second, small-group settings foster more participation among residents than do large meetings. Across all three sites, adults and youth alike reported that they were more comfortable speaking up in small-group "break outs" and teams, and that participation was generally more even in these settings than in larger meetings.

Third, meeting location affects participation. Having single centralized meeting sites, as St. Petersburg and Savannah did during planning, seems to have restricted the sites' ability to draw in both adults and youth from the entire neighborhood. The "house meetings" and the use of different schools and churches in Austin clearly broadened resident participation in this site.

Fourth, food helps. Each site made sure that food was served at meetings, and this was mentioned by both adults and youth in all three sites as a factor that made their participation easier.

Finally, having a variety of roles to choose from helps to sustain the involvement of residents over a series of planning meetings. This has been the experience in many communities trying to engage in this type of process. In the two sites (St. Petersburg and Savannah) where the only avenue for resident participation in the process was to attend meetings, there was a drop-off in participation; only a relatively small number of residents sustained their involvement throughout the process. In Austin, where residents could participate in a variety of roles—e.g., hosting or attending house meetings, participating in neighborhood walks, attending community meetings, or joining action teams—larger numbers of residents were involved throughout the planning phase. While the variety of means of participation may not be the only explanation for broader participation in this site, it does seem to have been a contributing factor.

As more communities try to mobilize for change, lessons about the process of involving residents in the effort are valuable in their own right. But with the assumption in CCYD that the initiative can only be sustained if it is adopted and driven by the residents of a community, it is also important to examine the content of the residents' participation. That is, the roles played by residents recruited for CCYD planning need to be looked at in the context of the roles played by lead agencies and other community institutions, e.g., who was involved, who led the effort, whose ideas are in the plan, and who made decisions about governing implementation. These issues are addressed in the next section.

NEIGHBORHOOD INSTITUTIONS

The CCYD operational guidelines for planning require the involvement of adult and youth residents in planning, but do not specify other participants in the planning process. While some early advisors to P/PV felt that participation by the schools or churches or service agencies should be required, it was decided that while the involvement of these institutions would certainly be necessary at some point for CCYD to succeed, the social context in communities varied too widely for these parameters to be set nationally. Since site-selection for planning was made partly on the basis of the strength of linkages the lead agencies had both to the target neighborhood and the broader community, further decisions about who to "bring to the table" for planning was left in local hands.

In some areas, sites made similar choices; in others, they diverged. The experience in these sites during planning showed that making resident involvement and control a priority had a clear effect on (1) local decisions about whom to involve in planning, (2) the leadership roles played by the lead agency staff and residents, and (3) the content of the plans.

Which Institutions Participated

Service providers. In all three sites, the lead agencies made the decision to exclude the local youth service providers from core planning or to involve them in a separate process. In all three sites, we were told this decision resulted from a desire to have a genuinely "community-driven process." Lead agency staff told us they feared that "the whole process would have been dominated by agencies" if they were brought into the planning process with the residents. There was also a consistent concern expressed that if service providers were involved at this stage of the process, the plans would have been proposals of "traditional services," because the agencies would see CCYD as a "new source of money" for their existing services. However, each of the lead agencies also clearly recognized that service providers would be needed to support and/or implement some elements of the communities' plans. Consequently, in Savannah, agency heads were kept informed about the CCYD effort through their involvement in monthly YFA meetings. In Austin, service providers were organized into a separate "Service and Support Group" in the hope of building a collaborative relationship that would position this group to respond effectively to community-identified needs and requests in CCYD's implementation phase. In St. Petersburg, the process of involving service providers at all was delayed until implementation.

While lead agency staff in all three sites expressed some concern about the effects on implementation of having excluded service providers from planning, all seemed firm in their conviction that this was necessary to achieve the goal of producing community-driven plans.

The schools. There were no schools directly involved in CCYD planning in two of the sites (St. Petersburg and Savannah), but some were involved in Austin. In St. Petersburg and Savannah, most or all of the schools (respectively) are located outside the CCYD target neighborhood; and because of school choice, bussing, magnet schools, private and alternative schools, CCYD-aged youth attend about 40 different elementary, middle or high schools in these sites. In St. Petersburg, the principal of a large vocational school located in the neighborhood did attend the early planning meetings, but dropped out when scheduling conflicts arose and was not replaced by another representative. In Austin, the principals of the public schools (four elementary and one junior high) located in the neighborhood participated in planning meetings because of their affiliation with Austin Interfaith. But there no high schools were involved in planning, nor were the more than 20 other schools attended by youth in the neighborhood. As noted earlier, some neighborhood schools were also used as a resource in Austin for community meetings and for outreach through presentations to teachers and PTA groups.

Churches. The involvement of neighborhood churches in planning was similar in pattern to that of the schools. In St. Petersburg, the pastor of one of the large churches in the neighborhood was an active member of the core planning team, but there was no widespread involvement of churches. The intention was to form a council of churches that would be represented in planning by this pastor, but this task was not accomplished during planning. In Savannah, representatives from a few congregations did attend some of the later planning meetings. In

Austin, again because of the role of Austin Interfaith, two of the large Catholic churches were partners in the planning process, made their facilities available for community meetings, and publicized CCYD activities through announcements in their newsletters and after services. Toward the end of planning, AI organized a "Pastors' Luncheon" to bring together leaders of other churches in the neighborhood, explain CCYD and ask for a commitment to coordinate activities; this meeting was attended by five pastors. All three communities have a significant number of churches (some large and traditional, some small "storefront" congregations) that were not involved in planning, but the sites plan to begin involving them in implementation.

In sum, by the end of planning, each of the three sites recognized the need to engage other community institutions more fully. Given the large number of schools and churches, and the complexities of beginning collaborations among these institutions, a significant amount of time and effort would have had to be devoted to this task early on. But the constraints of the short formal planning period, the need to nurture community control of the CCYD effort, and the high level of effort required to involve community adults and youth in the process, seem to have pushed work with other institutions into the implementation period. As a result, the planning effort—in the end—was really a partnership primarily of the lead agencies and the residents. The next section examines the roles played by the lead agencies, and the balance of control between them and the residents in the planning period.

The Roles of Lead Agencies and Residents

The locus of decision-making and control between professional agency staff and neighborhood residents has proved to be a continual, and tenuous, balancing act in community initiatives; the CCYD planning effort was no different in this regard. Agencies are tasked with supporting these efforts and ensuring progress is made, while at the same time trying to foster community control. Each of the CCYD lead agencies devoted similar, and significant, resources to support the planning effort. But the sites varied in the degree of control turned over to residents in this early phase of the demonstration. This, ultimately, appears to have affected both the content of the plans and the sense of ownership over them expressed by residents (both adults and youth).

In St. Petersburg, the three most senior staff at the JWB estimated they each spent about 10 percent of their time on CCYD over the planning period. This was in addition to the full-time staff person hired to work with residents on CCYD, and to the administrative and clerical time needed to support the effort. The JWB staff made an early decision that, starting with planning, the CCYD effort should be led and controlled by the community, rather than by their agency. The staff planned to turn over to the residents the authority to make all policy and budgetary decisions about CCYD in implementation (including control of a matching grant made by JWB to support CCYD). Consequently, the planning effort was guided by a group of community members who volunteered to be on an Executive Committee ultimately composed of four neighborhood residents (including the president of the Neighborhood Association), a pastor of a large neighborhood church, the Director of the City Recreation Center in Childs Park, a VISTA volunteer working in the neighborhood, and the CCYD coordinator hired by the JWB. This group chose two residents to co-lead their activities, and this decision was ratified by the full planning team. The JWB senior staff met with, and supported, the CCYD coordinator, attended some full planning team meetings, and met with the P/PV field representative—but, in general, tried to maintain a low profile in the community during this effort.

Members of the resident-led Executive Committee (EC) played a number of roles during planning. They headed the core concept "teams" that worked on implementation strategies during meetings and retreats; the EC co-leaders chaired all meetings; and EC members met as a small group every week to 10 days to decide how to prioritize and put the community-generated ideas together into a plan. They also decided on a form for the governing council that would be the decision-making body during implementation and began to draft bylaws to govern this group. One of the most difficult issues for the group was deciding how to involve individuals on the council who were key to implementation, but not residents of the neighborhood (e.g., city staff, service agency staff, JWB staff). The outcome was to include them as "ex officio" (non-voting) members.

The formal strategic plan was drafted by the CCYD coordinator, with support from other JWB staff, based on the ideas and budgets developed during the planning meetings. The EC members reviewed versions of the draft and suggested changes, and copies of the plan were sent to all other planning team members. A town meeting was held to discuss the final draft of the plan and was reportedly attended by between 12 and 30 people (estimates varied).

Each of the adult residents we interviewed at the end of planning expressed satisfaction with the plan, were well-versed in its content, and said that it accurately reflected the work done by the community over the planning period. There was a clear sense of ownership over the plan and control over the process. JWB was viewed as a "supporter" of the effort. However, the youth—who were not represented on the EC and did not attend many full team meetings—could not tell us anything about the plan's content and did not feel they had any "say" over what went into it.

In Savannah, also, a significant amount of senior-level staff time was devoted to CCYD during the planning phase. The directors of the YFA and the FRC reported spending about 10 percent and 20 percent (respectively) of their time on CCYD planning; two other senior YFA staff reported spending one-third and one-fourth of their time on planning activities. Two of the community outreach caseworkers at the FRC each spent about 25 percent of their time on CCYD planning, either facilitating and/or attending meetings and surveying neighborhood assets. YFA also provided clerical and administrative support for this effort.

The YFA staff took direct responsibility for facilitating the planning process and making decisions about the governance of CCYD. The series of meetings with both adult and youth residents were planned and facilitated by YFA staff. During the community meetings, small teams would break out to work on individual core concepts; these small-group discussions were reportedly led either by residents who volunteered, or by YFA staff. Between meetings, YFA staff took the input from the adult and youth meetings, organized it and brought it back to the next meeting as a starting point.

During planning, the YFA staff had decided that the FRC Resident Advisory Council would be the community governing body for CCYD, with oversight from YFA. Since this group (the advisory council) was expected to take over the running of the FRC—the main community resource in the neighborhood—it was felt that integrating the governance of CCYD activities into their efforts, rather than creating a whole new structure, would be the most sensible approach.

Once community input for the implementation strategies was obtained and a governance structure decided on, YFA took responsibility for drafting the strategic plan. The plan contained ideas generated by adults, youth and YFA staff "meshed together" into one document. Since the YFA staff were trying to integrate CCYD activities with a variety of other efforts targeting the CCYD neighborhood, they blended the community-generated ideas with other YFA efforts and goals. Recognizing that this might confuse resident participants, the plan authors attempted to "use [the residents'] language to keep credibility . . . and maintain the integrity of the [community] process." We were told by agency staff that all of the community ideas except one, building a pool, were incorporated into the final plan. When the plan was drafted, a meeting was held with residents to review it and point out "where their ideas were (in the plan) and explain why additional things were in there."

The residents we interviewed, who had been consistently involved in the planning process, expressed satisfaction that their ideas were represented in the CCYD plan. However, there was confusion about the role of the FRC Resident Advisory Council in implementing CCYD. The president of the Council said she knew they were "supposed to be involved in implementation," but it was still not clear what role the Council would be expected to play; and when we attended a Resident Advisory Council meeting after planning was completed, most of the those present were unfamiliar with CCYD and with the Council's oversight role in implementation. This appeared to be the result of inconsistent attendance at Council meetings. When the confusion arose, the secretary read back the minutes from the Council meetings where the plan was discussed and adopted, and a vote was taken on whether to assume responsibility for CCYD along with the FRC.

The Austin lead agencies, like the others, committed significant resources to the CCYD planning effort. The director of the Community Services Division reported spending about 20 percent of his time on CCYD planning; and two other senior staff from CSD spent 30 percent and 50 percent of their time on CCYD. The city also contributed between $4,000 and $6,000 in monetary support, as well as the clerical and administrative support for planning. Austin Interfaith had two community organizers working with the city staff and residents on CCYD, and their institutional affiliates (two churches and four schools) provided space for community meetings.

The leadership of and control over the planning process in this site was shared among the city, AI and the residents. A "leadership" team of three city staff, two AI staff and two or three residents assumed overall responsibility for planning strategies and events to mobilize the community and to develop ideas for the CCYD plan. This group met every one to two weeks throughout the planning period. The large community meeting agendas were planned by the leadership team, and the meetings were facilitated by AI staff early in planning, and by residents later in the process. The Action Teams responsible for developing ideas for implementing each core concept were led by residents; and the five team leaders were responsible for planning the strategy for the Action Team meetings. The neighborhood walks and house meetings were organized and facilitated by AI staff and residents who are AI members. AI staff also facilitated the "Pastors and Principals" meetings that were held to keep the heads of the member institutions informed of progress on the plan; and they organized and led the "Pastors' Luncheon" held to begin to involve other churches in the CCYD effort. The city staff organized and facilitated the meetings of the "Service and Support Group" that met throughout the planning period.

While the lead agencies in Austin had decided at the outset of planning that governance of CCYD implementation would be turned over to a community body, deciding on the composition of this group was reportedly the most difficult and contentious task in planning. The city staff and AI staff decided to propose in the plan an "Interim Steering Committee" comprised of resident (adult and youth) representatives from each of the churches and schools that had participated in planning. When some residents felt strongly that the representatives should not all be affiliated with AI-linked institutions, plans were made to include a youth and adult representative from each of the most active neighborhood associations in East Austin as part of this group. The first task of this Interim Steering Committee during implementation was to be to decide on the final structure of the permanent Steering Committee that would govern CCYD implementation.

The formal plan was drafted by city staff using the ideas generated and agreed on at the planning retreat and community meetings. All the adult residents we interviewed felt the plan accurately reflected the ideas generated during planning and that it was a community-driven effort. They cited the number of house meetings and neighborhood walks used to generate ideas, and the fact that a consensus process was used to decide on what finally went into the plan, as indicators that this was the "community's plan." As noted earlier, the young people felt that everything in the plan is something they want in the community—because it "went through the youth" first.

Lessons About the Involvement of Neighborhood Institutions

In all the sites, most of the time and resources devoted to planning were focused on the task of producing "community-developed plans" by giving residents the time and a safe forum to develop their own ideas about what was needed in their neighborhoods. These efforts were supported by lead agency staff with the expertise to put the ideas together in a formal plan for implementation. But little effort was made to involve youth-serving agencies and programs—the goal was to build resident interest and involvement, not professional staff interest.

As a result, in two of the communities, the final documents were clearly "resident plans," i.e., the plans were almost wholly based on the strategies developed during the planning process. In Savannah, the final document was a YFA plan with "resident input," i.e, the residents' ideas were incorporated with those of the agency staff because in this site, CCYD is part of a larger, established intervention strategy in the community. Ultimately, the effectiveness of these strategies will have to be judged in light of the sites' eventual success in involving a larger group of stakeholders in implementation.

For the most part, the residents who were involved in planning felt the process was a good one, had a clear idea of what CCYD would entail in their community, and were satisfied that the strategic plans accurately reflected their desires for their neighborhoods. The exceptions were the youth in St. Petersburg and the Resident Advisory Council in Savannah. Whether the relative success of resident planning resulted in better—i.e., more effective and sustainable—strategies for youth than would have been developed by the professional youth-serving agencies, will also become clearer as implementation proceeds. The plans did, however, meet the goals of CCYD's designers in proposing practical, creative activities for all youth in the communities—rather than focusing on remedial strategies that target only youth with problems.

Where the sites diverged was in the approach taken to the residents' leadership of planning and the structure of the permanent governance groups. In St. Petersburg, leadership of the planning process was turned over to residents, as was the decision about the governance body. In Austin, leadership during planning is best described as "shared"; and while an Interim Steering Committee structure was designated by the lead agencies, the permanent form was left to be decided by this group. In Savannah, the leadership role in planning was taken by agency staff with the intention of moving governance to the community in implementation through the use of the existing Resident Advisory Council. In each of the sites, these strategies adopted in planning seemed to have had a carryover effect into the start of implementation by shaping the issues faced by the sites in the early stages of trying to get CCYD under way. This is the focus of the next chapter.

IV. EARLY IMPLEMENTATION ISSUES

As the communities moved into the implementation phase of the demonstration, a few clear issues emerged that were closely attended to by both the sites and P/PV. They warrant brief discussion here because they illustrate how decisions made, and processes set under way, during the communities' planning periods influenced the transition to implementation and the sites' assessments of the key challenges they faced.

The first challenge that all three sites faced during the first quarter of implementation was attending to the important issues of power, trust and inclusion that were critical to getting their community governance groups functioning. In each site, these issues took a different form. In St. Petersburg, the community group (the Executive Committee) that took leadership of the planning effort also formulated the structure for the permanent governance group—the Childs Park Youth Initiative Council (CPYIC). This CPYIC board is composed of seven neighborhood residents (adults), two youth representatives, representatives of three neighborhood organizations and groups, and five non-voting agency representatives. The Executive Committee also decided that its resident members would automatically have seats on CPYIC to maintain continuity into the implementation period. However, before the remainder of the board positions were filled, and before board policies and procedures were in place, the early CPYIC members began to make a few decisions about governance and funding. This caused confusion among residents who had been involved in planning, but were not on the Executive Committee, because they were not clear about how the Council seats would be filled, or why money was already being spent. It also caused a significant amount of conflict within the early CPYIC board, and disaffection with the process, because some members did not agree with the decisions being made, and some disapproved of making decisions before clear guidelines were in place. The negative outcome of this process was that two CPYIC members resigned early in implementation. The positive outcome was that the remaining members realized they needed to quickly set policies and procedures for governing, and develop mechanisms for making decisions and resolving conflict. They requested training and support from JWB in these areas and plans were being made for its provision as this report was drafted.

The role of youth in CCYD also continued to be a challenge for this site at the start of implementation. The Teen Council was holding separate meetings run by an adult advisor, but it was functioning as more of a youth "club" than anything, and the teens were unaware that they were supposed to be working with the adults to run CCYD. The two youth representatives on CPYIC said they did not discuss CCYD at Teen Council meetings because they "wouldn't know what to say" since they did not fully understand what was happening at CPYIC meetings.

In Savannah, the YFA staff had decided that the Resident Advisory Committee of the FRC would be the community governance body for CCYD, with oversight from YFA. However, there was no widespread or consistent involvement of the members of this group in the CCYD process. At the same time, the Resident Advisory Committee was also faced with the challenge of moving from an advisory role to taking responsibility as the Board of Directors of the FRC. Consequently, they were not prepared to take over the responsibility for governing CCYD. The YFA staff decided that for some period, in order to get the initiative under way, they would take responsibility for running CCYD and bring their decisions to the resident group for approval. At the same time, the YFA was trying to develop a strategy for building the capacity of this group to take over these responsibilities.

The youth group in Savannah also continued to meet separately at the beginning of implementation; and was functioning as a youth "club" rather than a governing body. The teens were meeting regularly, but were caught up in planning activities and events for themselves (e.g., dances, cookouts, sleepovers, job training) and had still not grasped their role in the broader CCYD effort. The teen group does have a representative who attends the Resident Advisory Council meetings, and one who attends the full YFA meetings; but at the teen meeting we attended neither reported back to the group about these activities. The adult advisors told us they needed to work more with these youth representatives to prepare them for meetings and to have them to report back to the teen group.

In Austin, an Interim Steering Committee of neighborhood residents, church and school leaders was charged with deciding who should sit on the permanent Neighborhood Steering Committee (NSC) to govern CCYD. This process became a forum for playing out some political conflicts and struggles that have reportedly existed in this community for years. The involvement of Austin Interfaith and the neighborhood churches was viewed with suspicion by a small number of vocal residents; and the issue of who else should be involved in governance was the subject of great debate. Members of two of the neighborhood associations went so far as to involve the City Council in this struggle in order to become part of the group making decisions about the NSC. It appeared that the early part of implementation was being almost wholly devoted to meeting and debating the issue of who should be responsible for governing CCYD, but it was clearly one that needed to be resolved. Most of the residents we spoke with felt that CCYD was presenting them with the opportunity to address basic issues of inclusion, power and trust that have existed in the community for years. A number of residents mentioned they had requested training in conflict resolution and trust building so they could begin to work together effectively as a team.

While the teens here also continued to have separate meetings during implementation, they appeared to be well-integrated into the overall CCYD effort. The teen meetings were scheduled before the Steering Committee meetings, and were facilitated by a youth worker, so that the youth would have the opportunity to decide on and prepare what they wanted to say. Relatively large numbers of youth continued to attend the Interim Steering Committee meetings with the adults; in fact, they constitute half the formal structure (12 of 24). After discussion at one of the teen meetings about how to ensure their involvement in the governance process, the youth requested that one of their group be co-facilitator (with an adult) at the steering committee meetings—which became the practice. They felt this would help to ensure that the young people present at meetings understood what was happening and played an active role in shaping CCYD. These youth clearly understood their role to be to plan and implement activities for all youth in their neighborhood. However, some youth reported that once planning ended, they were having some difficulty participating at the CCYD meetings because the political arguments had been taking up most of the time, and were "boring" and often incomprehensible.

Both the staff and the residents at all three sites identified resolving these governance issues as the most pressing challenge at the start of implementation, and a great deal of time and energy was being focused on this task. But all of these issues are clearly ones that need to be resolved in order to keep the "community" part of the process functioning. Building the capacity of the groups to govern was identified as the highest priority for technical assistance (including defining roles and responsibilities, decision-making skills, conflict resolution, team building and trust building). It is also clear that if youth are to be integrated into implementing the CCYD effort in these sites, they too need training and preparation in order to participate actively in governance.

Another challenge the sites were concerned with as they moved to implementation was the need to develop outreach strategies to involve more residents in CCYD, some in governance, but also in other activities. In Savannah and St. Petersburg, there was very little outreach during planning beyond the group of residents who actively worked on the plans. Even in Austin, where there was significant outreach in the community, concerns were expressed about the need to get more adults and youth engaged in CCYD activities. Agency staff and residents alike were aware that the success of CCYD would hinge on their capacity to make it a full community effort, and that in order for it to be sustained, other residents would need to take over the leadership roles that these residents had taken on in planning and early implementation. It remains an open question whether limited community outreach in planning will affect implementation. The broader neighborhood might or might not see CCYD as something driven by their own community because it was developed by their neighbors—though not by them. The sites were already concerned with this issue and were anxious to learn of strategies used by other communities to mobilize residents. A team of St. Petersburg CPYIC members planned to visit the Austin site to learn more about the techniques used in their community.

Finally, all three sites were facing the challenge of whether and how to involve more neighborhood institutions in CCYD. All three sites had begun outreach to neighborhood churches early in implementation. But all the sites were still trying to develop strategies for how to involve service providers in CCYD. It was not clear whether or not the sites would try to more actively involve schools in CCYD, since neighborhood youth are dispersed to so many schools. It will also be interesting to track whether bringing these institutions into an effort, essentially led now by the community, will affect the established partnership between lead agencies and residents.

While the sites are demonstrably taking the need to involve youth in governance seriously, they are continuing to learn how to do so effectively. Each site has developed a dual strategy of having the youth meet both separately (which appears to have real benefits), and in some form with the adults. But early in implementation, only the youth in Austin appeared to be well-integrated into the adults' efforts. Over time, as adults and youth develop different strategies for working together, their experiences will continue to offer lessons about how to make this unique type of partnership work.

Establishing resident boards with the skills and capacities needed to govern a community initiative was clearly the greatest challenge to moving smoothly from planning to implementation. These sites took two distinct approaches—each with its own potential strengths and pitfalls. In St. Petersburg and Austin, the residents were given control of the initiative at the start of implementation, with the intention of providing the support and training they need to govern as they participate in the process. While these residents clearly feel "ownership" of CCYD, there is a risk that the early struggles and missteps that occur in the absence of governing experience or training might disillusion some residents, or cause some to "burn out" on the process. In Savannah, the YFA plans to build the capacity of the resident group to govern as a board, then turn over the reins of the initiative. These residents might be better prepared to assume this responsibility, and avoid some of the tensions and snags they might otherwise experience; but there is the risk that, in the end, they may not perceive CCYD as an effort driven by the community. Either or both of these strategies could prove successful, and they will offer a rich opportunity to learn about community governance as the demonstration proceeds.

V. REFLECTIONS

The CCYD initiative is still in its early stages and the communities clearly have great challenges ahead. The most general conclusion that can be drawn from this phase of the demonstration is: it is possible for lead agencies and residents in neighborhoods to work through an effective community planning process, in a relatively short time period, without getting bogged down in process and conflicts—under the right conditions. These conditions have to do with both the nature of the initiative and the conditions in the communities.

The framework for change, including the focus on youth development and the requirement that residents be partners in the initiative, was set by P/PV. In each of the sites, agency staff and residents alike consistently reported that the appeal of CCYD, and their willingness to undertake it, stemmed from the fact that it was to be a community-driven effort and that the core concepts reflect what they believe is necessary for young people to grow into healthy, productive adults. The agencies were clearly committed to partnering with the neighborhoods to conduct a community-driven process—as was evidenced by the level of resources and degree of focus they brought to this task. The residents demonstrated their commitment to changing their communities through the amount of time and energy they devoted to the taxing task of developing a vision and plan for their community, which they did as volunteers with many other commitments and responsibilities.

Both agency staff and residents said they would not have participated in the demonstration if they had not believed that the CCYD core concepts represented the "right things to do" for adolescents. The core concepts were perceived as a framework that said "in clear language what [we] have been struggling with for years," but did not constitute a "cookie-cutter approach." Their appeal seems to have stemmed from being seen as structured enough so that people knew from the start where to focus their energy, but flexible enough so that the communities could "fashion strategies that take advantage of the interests and resources of the neighborhood." The partners in these sites credited having this framework, with its broad appeal, as the primary reason that the planning process was almost conflict free, and was completed quickly without spending too much time getting "bogged down in procedural stuff." In short, the CCYD approach—midway between "program regulation" and "block-granting"—seems to have been successful in generating a fast, productive planning period.

However, the degree of success seen in the three sites described here was not achieved in the six-month time frame in the other planning sites. It was not the purpose of this report to compare these two groups of sites. However, the three implementation sites did share characteristics that ultimately distinguished them from the others that began planning at the same time, but did not complete it successfully with the same speed. These features had to do with the lead agencies and the contexts in which they were working.

The selection criteria for planning sites included the presence of a lead agency that (1) could start, and support, the CCYD planning effort, and (2) was committed to the operational and developmental principles guiding the initiative. A variety of types of agencies were represented among the eight planning sites (including CBOs, community coalitions, governmental and quasi-governmental entities), all of which had the legitimacy to work in partnership with neighborhoods. And each site found CCYD appealing enough that they undertook this complex and difficult effort with modest demonstration funds. In the end, it appeared that the three sites that had the most successful planning periods differed from the others in two key areas: the degree to which there was "buy-in" to the CCYD framework; and the stability, strength and resources of the lead agencies.

As the planning process unfolded in the communities, it became clear that a distinguishing feature shared by these three sites was that the structure and content of CCYD was more than just a good "fit" with the ongoing work of the lead agencies. In each case, the leaders of these institutions saw CCYD as an intervention that filled a critical gap in their ability to achieve their missions. Whether it was because they were "searching for a developmental framework" to guide their efforts with adolescents, looking for a "mechanism to form stronger partnerships" with neighborhoods, or both, these leaders saw CCYD as a natural next step to take in trying to improve outcomes for youth. Each was committed to a youth development approach, but did not have a theory or model from which to proceed. This resulted in a level of commitment (or buy-in) that, ultimately, made these agencies willing to devote whatever time and resources were necessary to make this effort work. The attraction of CCYD was not as a source of new money for the community, but rather as a critical piece of the larger agency agenda. There was more at stake for these institutions than being selected for participation in a national research demonstration, because each of these sites is looking to this effort for strategies and mechanisms to work with other neighborhoods in their cities. Each of these leaders told us that CCYD was something they were going to try "whether or not P/PV selected them" for its demonstration.

While this level of commitment seemed key to the successful planning efforts in these sites, it was also not enough to have the desire to participate in CCYD; these sites also had key capacities that turned out to be vital to the effort. All the lead agencies in the implementation sites had strong and widely recognized leadership, stability as organizations and flexibility of resources—qualities that proved necessary to keep the planning effort moving forward in both community process and strategic content. During the course of planning, all the other sites experienced some combination of leadership change, resource shortages or competing agendas that, of necessity, drew time and energy away from the CCYD planning effort.

At the same time that we learned about the value of the initiative's structure and the importance of the context in which it was undertaken, we also learned how organizations outside communities can help these efforts. While the hard work of community change must be done inside the community, by the community, the early phases of CCYD also yielded lessons about how national institutions and organizations can help to build critical local capacities in communities and conduct business in a way that supports the local partners.

First, most—if not all—community-change initiatives proceed based on the assumption that resident involvement is key to community change. While "involvement" can be operationalized in different ways, accomplishing it requires expertise and resources. In two sites, involvement meant having a small proportion of the neighborhood's residents dedicate their time to attending a series of intensive meetings for the purpose of designing a plan. In the third site, residents were also tapped as mobilizers, educators and recruiters of other residents for most of the planning period, while the actual "planning" was accomplished in fewer meetings. In all the sites, the lead agencies had to have the flexibility to focus their resources on this goal in order to achieve it in the short time frame.

Since attending planning meetings is, by its nature, an activity that is only likely to attract a small proportion of residents in any community, learning about or creating strategies for broader outreach to residents seems to be an area in which communities can use assistance. Even in Austin, where a lead agency is a professional organizing institution, the issues of reaching segments of the population not ordinarily reached, and sustaining the interest and involvement of residents over time, was identified as an area in which developing local capacity would be valuable.

Second, establishing resident leadership and governance, which has been a challenging task for many community initiatives, requires a range of support and technical assistance from lead agencies and national partners. The residents and agencies that are committed to making CCYD a reality in these communities became aware that in planning and early implementation, residents were taking on roles that require special skills and experience. These sites are trying to balance the need to make progress and the need to acquire these skills, and could benefit from the resources to build this critical capacity in their communities.

Finally, outside institutions and organizations that do try to support communities in rebuilding efforts need to be mindful that they too must "do business differently." This starts with the process of selecting sites for community-driven efforts. This task needs to be treated much more delicately than does selecting agencies or programs for traditional interventions—because the consequences are more far-reaching. Community initiative funders and managers often require potential sites to involve the residents of their locality in the development of plans and proposals because these initiatives are designed to enable the community to lead the way in bettering their environment, whatever the focus of the initiative. But once the effort becomes a community process, rejection or the withdrawal of funds can be a demoralizing experience for the very people who are expected to be the mobilizers of change. Residents are placed in the position of competing for the right to try to strengthen their communities; if they fail, there is a genuine risk that the "next time," no one will step forward to invest the effort necessary to improve their community. A number of the CCYD planning sites had been through such a process prior to CCYD, with either federally or privately funded initiatives, with negative results. A few community leaders had some early hesitation about participating in CCYD because they were concerned that the communities could not withstand another "rejection" or "failure" (including the communities that made the most progress). This is one reason that P/PV has continued to work with the planning sites that needed more time and/or capacity developed before they could be expected to move toward implementation.

Organizations working with these complex community partnerships also need to be willing to invest time and effort in the communication process. Professional partnerships between "business" organizations usually rely on key representatives from each side as the conduit for information, frequently using the telephone. This is often not effective in working with community partnerships, for two reasons. First, the mix and variety of stakeholders in these efforts—from agency heads to teenagers—means that information must be presented in different ways, at different levels of complexity, often more than once, with enough time built in for people who have other full-time obligations in their lives to process whatever is communicated. And second, outside organizations need to become familiar to those inside the community. Each of the stakeholders in community efforts needs some direct contact with any organization that tries to support the work. If only one or two individuals, usually at a lead agency, are relied on to pass information to the rest of the community, misunderstandings and mistrust can arise and interfere with the ability to support these initiatives effectively.

As the CCYD sites continue to rebuild their communities to achieve their visions of healthy neighborhoods for adolescents, there is a great deal to be learned. Future research on CCYD will continue to track the process of mobilizing and governing these efforts, as well as the changes that are made in the communities as a result. Information will also be collected to measure effects on the daily lives of teens and, ultimately, on the number of youth who attain the desired outcomes as they move into adulthood.

APPENDIX A

CORE CONCEPTS:

Key Dimensions, Developmental Resources, Outcomes and Bibliography

CORE CONCEPT: Adult Support and Guidance (Parent-Specific)

A KEY DIMENSIONS	B DEVELOPMENTAL RESOURCES	C OUTCOMES*
1. Authoritative parenting	1. Whether youth have parents who adopt an authoritative style	1. Social development (Baumrind, 1993; 1978; 1973: A1; Conger et al., 1993: A2; Becker, 1964: A5)
2. Nurturant parenting	2. Whether youth have parents who are nurturing	2. Self-esteem (Baumrind, 1978; 1973: A1; Peterson et al., 1985; Cooper et al.: A5; Maccoby, 1980: A4; Eccles et al., 1993: A7)
3. Positive communication	3. Whether youth communicate with parents well and frequently	3. Self-confidence (Baumrind, 1978; 1973: A1; Conger et al., 1993: A2)
4. Firm control	4. Whether youth have parents who use reason along with consistent discipline	4. Pro-social behaviors (Baumrind, 1978; 1973: A1; Conger et al., 1993: A2)
5. Parental support	5. Whether youth have parents who are supportive	5. "Agentic" (Baumrind, 1978; 1973: A1)
6. Parental involvement in schools/schoolwork	6. Whether youth have parents who are involved with schools	6. Academic achievement (Conger et al., 1993: A2; Entwisle et al., 1986; Unger and Sussman, 1990: A6; Dauber and Epstein, 1989: A6, A8; Astone and McLanahan, 1991: A9, A8, A6)
7. Youth involvement in family decision making	7. Whether youth go to a school that emphasizes parental involvement	7. Positive adjustment (Conger et al., 1993: A2)
8. Frequent communication	8. Whether youth feels involved in decision making at home	8. Problem-solving skills (Alexander and Barton, 1976: A3)
	9. Whether youth have parents who have high aspirations for them	9. Conflict resolution skills (Alexander and Barton, 1976: A3, A4)
	10. Whether youth have parents who are available for frequent communication	10. Self-control (Mussen, Conger and Kagan, 1974: A4)
		11. Social responsibility (Maccoby, 1986; Baumrind, 1991; 1978: A4)
		12. Moral development (Hoffman, 1980; 1970: A4)
		13. Ego development (Hauser et al., 1987; 1984: A3; Powers et al., 1983: A3)
		14. Adjustment to junior high school (Eccles et al., 1993: A7)
		15. School motivation (Eccles et al., 1993: A7)
		16. Attendance (Astone and McLanahan, 1991: A8, A6)
		17. Educational aspirations (Astone and McLanahan, 1991: A8, A6; Sewell and Shah, 1968: A8)

*** Reference codes denote established links between specific Key Dimensions and Outcomes. For example, under Outcome #1, A-1 refers to Baumrind's (1991, 1978, 1973) findings of an association between authoritative parenting (Key Dimension) and social development (Outcome).**

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CORE CONCEPT: Adult Support and Guidance (Non-Parents)

A KEY DIMENSIONS	B DEVELOPMENTAL RESOURCES	C OUTCOMES
1. Monitoring 2. Guidance 3. Advice 4. Feedback 5. Material and instrumental assistance 6. Emotional support 7. Clear and consistent rules 8. Understanding and sensitivity to youth circumstances 9. Youth-centered activities	1. Number of youth satisfied with network, (Nair and Jason, 1985: A5) 2. Network size 3. Quality of relationships 4. Network composition 5. Number of youth who have successful adjustments in school (Dunn et al., 1987) 6. Intensity of relationships 7. Level of support from adolescent's family 8. Duration of network relationships 9. Level of participation in formal and voluntary organizations 10. Level of material and emotional support provided to youth 11. Satisfaction in relationship (Styles and Morrow, 1992; Mecartney et al., 1994: A5)	1. Education and income (Marsden and Hurlbert, 1988: B2, B4) 2. Fewer behavior problems (Dubow and Tisak, 1989: B3) 3. Lower levels of stress (Dubow and Ullman, 1989) 4. Successful adjustment to school among higher numbers of adolescents (Dunn et al., 1987: A6) 5. Improved school attendance, A1 6. Better decision making, A2 7. Lower gang related activity 8. Decreased group related crime (Sampson and Groves, 1989) 9. Lower levels of violence (Taylor and Covington, 1988; Sampson and Groves, 1989: B9) 10. Academic achievement, A5

CORE CONCEPT: Work as a Multi-Purpose Tool

A KEY DIMENSIONS	B DEVELOPMENTAL RESOURCES	C OUTCOMES
1. Opportunity to learn on the job	1. Whether youth feel he/she has input at work (Mortimer et al., 1992: A5; Steinberg and Baumrind, 1991: A2)	1. Increased career awareness/practical knowledge (D'Amico, 1984: A2)
2. Not too long hours (e.g., less than 20 hours/week if in school)	2. Whether youth feels able to help others (Mortimer et al., 1992: A5)	2. Better interpersonal skills (Stern, 1984)
3. Support from parents, teachers and others	3. Whether youth feels competent (Finch et al., 1991: A6, A7)	3. More job involvement (Lorence and Mortimer, 1985: A7, A10)
4. Opportunity to reflect/discuss work experience	4. Number of job contracts youth has	4. Higher self-esteem (Mortimer et al., 1992: A8)
5. Opportunity to develop skills that will be useful in the future	5. Whether youth has opportunity to develop skills at work	5. Better employability skills (Greenberger and Steinberg, 1986: A2)
6. Opportunity for advancement	6. Whether youth acquires more challenging responsibilities/tasks at work	6. Better job satisfaction (Mortimer and Finch, 1992: A5)
7. Good pay	7. Whether youth feels he/she has support from parents, coworkers, supervisors, teachers	7. Less job stress (Shanahan, 1992: A2)
8. School and work are mutually supportive		8. Less risk of dropping-out (D'Amico, 1984: A2)
9. Supportive guidance from supervisor and coworkers		9. Less risk of substance use (Bachman and Schulenberg, 1993; Mortimer and Finch, 1992; Steinberg et al., 1993: A2)
10. Opportunity for autonomy		10. Higher employment (Stern and Nakata, 1989; Hamilton and Powers, 1990; Steel, 1991: A1, A2, A5)
		11. Higher wages (Mortimer et al., 1990; Mortimer and Finch, 1986; Stern and Nakata, 1989; Meyer and Wise, 1982; D'Amico and Baker, 1984: A2, A1, A3)
		12. Higher postsecondary enrollment (Steel, 1991: A2)

CORE CONCEPT: Transitions (School to Work)

A KEY DIMENSIONS	B DEVELOPMENTAL RESOURCES	C OUTCOMES
1. Strong academic base	1. Number of academic courses youth takes	1. Positive life attitudes (Bucknam and Brand, 1983; Owens, 1982: A2, A3)
2. Well-articulated, multiyear sequence of career guidance activities - exposure to range of occupations - general "world of work" - educational and skill requirements - counseling on course selection and postsecondary options	2. Number and range of internships, work exposure activities youth has	2. More career knowledge (Bucknam and Brand, 1983; Owens, 1982; Campbell et al., 1983: A2, A3, A4)
3. Work experience combined with other services (e.g., basic education, skills training, etc.)	3. Number interactions youth has with career guidance counselor	3. Better academic skills (Bucknam and Brand, 1983; Owens, 1982: A2, A3; Bishop 1989; Wirt et al., 1989: A1)
4. Transitional services (e.g., job readiness, job placement)	4. Number and range of work experiences youth has	4. Higher employment (Dick, 1993: A1, A3; Sum, 1987: A4; McMullan and Snyder, 1987: A2, A3; Rumberger and Daymont, 1989: A2)
		5. Higher wages (Dick, 1993: A1, A3; Sum, 1987: A2, A3; McMullan and Snyder, 1987: A4)
		6. Postsecondary enrollment (Cave and Quint, 1980: A2, A3)
		7. Lower dropout rates

CORE CONCEPT: Transitions (Middle School to High School)

A KEY DIMENSIONS	B DEVELOPMENTAL RESOURCES	C OUTCOMES
1. Youth maintains peer support network 2. Youth have more autonomy 3. Youth have more control in schooling 4. Youth have appropriate cognitive challenges 5. Youth experience fewer changes in classes 6. Youth have family support 7. Youth have school support (e.g., teachers, counselors) 8. Youth experience change gradually/spread out	1. Youth feel a part of the school, i.e., not anonymous (Felner et al., 1982: A1; Barone et al., 1991: A6, A7) 2. Youth feel able to gain access to information (Felner et al., 1982: A1) 3. Youth develop a peer group (Felner et al., 1982: A1) 4. Youth feel less "flux" in social setting (Felner et al., 1982: A1; Barone et al., 1991: A7)	1. Greater school satisfaction (Epstein and McPartland, 1976: A3) 2. Less stress 3. Better grades (Felner et al., 1982: A1) 4. Better perception of school environment (Felner et al., 1982: A1) 5. Higher attendance (Felner et al., 1982: A1) 6. More stable self-concept (Felner et al., 1982: A1)

CORE CONCEPT: Individual Involvement and Positive Peer Influence

A KEY DIMENSIONS	B DEVELOPMENTAL RESOURCES	C OUTCOMES
1. Youth have say 2. Youth carry out program activities 3. Youth exercise leadership 4. Youth have satisfying friendships 5. Democratic leadership by adults 6. Adults respect youth opinions 7. Cooperative learning environments 8. Youth are taught social skills 9. Experiential education	1. Youth have balanced access to peers and adults 2. Youth are accepted by peers (Bierman and Furman, 1984: A8) 3. Youth are supported by peers (Johnson et al., 1983: A7) 4. Youth feel treated fairly (A5) 5. Youth develop group identity (Rubin, 1980: A4; Lickona, 1977: A1, A5, A7) 6. Youth feel socially efficacious (Bierman and Furman, 1984; Oden and Asher, 1977: A8) 7. Youth have leadership positions 8. Youth lead activities 9. Youth learn cooperatively	1. Ability to cope with stress (Hansell, 1985: A4) 2. Takes group perspective (Lewin et al., 1939: A5; Kohlberg: D5) 3. Takes perspective of others (Lickona, 1977: B5; McGuire and Weisz, 1982; Cauce, 1986; Coates, 1987: A4; Bridgeman, 1981: A7) 4. Better grades (Aronson, 1984; Slavin, 1991: A7; Miller and Berndt, 1987: A4; Cauce, 1987: D4) 5. Greater interest in school (Aronson, 1984; Zahn et al., 1986: A7; Berndt and Hawkins 1987; Coates, 1985: A4) 6. Higher self-esteem (Aronson, 1984; Slavin, 1991; Zahn et al., 1986: A7) 7. Greater tolerance of others (Hawley and Eyler, 1983; Hawley, 1977: A6; Aronson, 1984: A7; Conrad and Hedin, 1982: A9) 8. Greater political efficacy (Torney et al., 1975; Glenn, 1972: A1; Rossell and Hawley, 1981: B4) 9. Less gang involvement 10. Greater sense of responsibility (Conrad and Hedin, 1982: A9) 11. More positive attitudes toward community service (Conrad and Hedin, 1982: A9) 12. Lower drop-out rates (Parker and Asher, 1987: B2) 13. Lower delinquency (Parker and Asher, 1987: B2; Hartley, 1976: A7)

CORE CONCEPT: Gaps

A KEY DIMENSIONS	B DEVELOPMENTAL RESOURCES	C OUTCOMES
1. Youth find activity interesting 2. Activity offered at convenient time 3. Activity is accessible 4. Gender sensitive 5. Presence of adults 6. Youth share similar values of activities 7. Activities fill a void in the home 8. School activities - Athletic 9. Quality of activities	1. Number of youth who participate in activity out of initial interest (Medrich, 1991: A1, A2, A3) 2. Number of youth who feel able to or can afford to participate in activity linkages (Hultsman, 1992; Medrich, 1991: A3) 3. Number of youth who are able to increase support among peers (Medrich, 1991: A6) 4. Number of peers who have choice/or ability to choose among different activities	1. Sustained participation in extracurricular activities (Hultsman, 1992; Medrich, 1991: A1, A7, A3, A4) 2. Reduced vandalism and drug use (Schinke et. al., 1992: A4, A8, A1) 3. Higher grade point averages (Schafer and Armer, 1968: A8) 4. Higher educational expectations (Spady, 1971: A8) 5. Increased applications to college (Snyder, 1969: A8) 6. Improved neighborhoods less/reduced drug related activities (Schinke et. al., 1992: A4) 7. Greater number of students obtaining college degrees (Snyder, 1969)

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1. Alexander, J.F. and C. Barton. 1976. "Behavioral Systems Therapy for Families." *Treating Relationships*, edited by D.H. Olson. Lake Mills, Iowa: Graphic.

This chapter describes an emerging program involving the development, application, and evaluation of an intervention technology for modifying the behavior of delinquent families. It draws on a number of specific research and program evaluation articles.

2. Aronson, E. 1984. *The Social Animal*. New York: Freeman and Company.

Twenty-two normal and 20 delinquent families were videotaped while performing discussion and resolution-of-differences tasks. The interaction data generally supported the hypotheses generated by systems theory and prior small-group research that abnormal families would express high rates of system-disintegrating, that is, defensive, communications, while normal families would express more system-integrating, that is, supportive, communications. Additional data supported the hypothesis that families operate as systems-demonstrating reciprocity and feedback. Furthermore, differences in intensity and content of system functioning in the two groups provided information concerning the processes through which some families adapt to stress, and others disintegrate.

3. Astone, Nan Marie and Sara S. McLanahan. 1991. "Family Structure, Parental Practices and High School Completion." *American Sociological Review*, 56:309-320.

Integrating ideas from child development with sociological models of educational attainment, we examine the relationship between family structure—whether both parents are present in the household—and children's achievement in high school. Using data from the "High School and Beyond" study, sophomore cohort, 1986, we ask whether differences in achievement are accounted for by differences in parents' educational aspirations and parenting styles. Children who live with single parents or stepparents during adolescence receive less encouragement and less help with school work than children who live with both natural parents, and parental involvement has positive effects on children's school achievement. Differences in parental behavior, however, account for little of the difference in educational attainment between children from intact and non-intact families.

4. Bachman, Jerald G. and John Schulenberg. 1993. "How Part-Time Work Intensity Relates to Drug Use, Problem Behavior, Time Use and Satisfaction Among High School Seniors: Are These Consequences or Merely Correlates?" *Developmental Psychology*, 29:220-235.

This study related work intensity (hours worked per week) to indicators of psychosocial functioning and adjustment by using nationally representative samples of high schools seniors, totalling over 70,000 respondents, from the classes of 1985-1989. Consistent with previous research, bivariate correlations were positive between work intensity and problem behavior; these associations were diminished (but not eliminated) once background and educational success indicators were controlled, thus suggesting that selection factors contribute to the correlations. Work intensity appears to reduce the likelihood of getting sufficient

sleep, eating breakfast, exercising, and having a satisfactory amount of leisure time. Conceptual and policy implications are discussed, including the possibility that long hours of part-time work may be both a symptom and a facilitator of psychosocial difficulties.

5. Barone, Charles, Ana I. Aguirre-Deandreis and Edison J. Trickett. 1991. "Means-Ends Problem-Solving Skills, Life Stress, and Social Support as Mediators of Adjustment in the Normative Transition to High School." *American Journal of Community Psychology*, Vol. 19, No. 2. College Park, Md.: University of Maryland.

6. Baumrind, Diana. 1978. "Parental Disciplining Patterns and Social Competence in Children." *Youth and Society*, 9:239-276.

This article presents a number of philosophical points of view that have guided parents' attempts to socialize their children. The research findings and conclusions explore the impact that various parental disciplinary practices have on children at successive developmental stages.

7. ______. 1973. "The Development of Instrumental Competence through Socialization." *Minnesota Symposia on Child Psychology*, 7:3-46.

The major objective of this research is to identify the effects of alternative patterns of parental authority on the development of instrumental competence in the child. Emphasis is on the upbringing of girls to encourage independence.

8. ______. 1991. "Parenting Styles and Adolescent Development," pp. 746-757 in *Encyclopedia of Adolescence, Volume II*, edited by Richard M. Lerner, Anne C. Petersen and Jeanne Brooks-Gunn. New York: Garland Publishing.

This brief review focuses on a few studies that are conceptually guided, use focused observation and/or intensive interview data, and employ multidimensional, multisituational assessments of individuals rather than survey questionnaires.

9. Becker, W.C. 1964. "Consequences of Different Kinds of Parental Discipline." *Review of Child Development*, edited by M.L. Hoffman and L.W. Hoffman, vol. 1. New York: Russell Sage Foundation.

This chapter reviews the parental discipline literature by dividing the research into four domains: (1) social class, sex, and child's age; (2) the "gross anatomy" of parent behavior; (3) love-oriented and power-assertive techniques (e.g., aggressions, reactions to transgressions, resistance to temptation); 4) restrictive and permissive approaches to discipline. The consequences of inconsistent discipline are also discussed.

10. Berndt, T.J. and J.A. Hawkins. 1987. *The Contribution of Supportive Friendships to Adjustment After the Transition to Junior High School*, (unpublished manuscript).

11. Bierman, Karen Linn and Wyndol Furman. 1984. "The Effects of Social Skills Training and Peer Involvement on the Social Adjustment of Preadolescents." *Child Development*, 55:151-162.

This study examined the effects of social skills training and peer involvement on the peer acceptance of disliked preadolescents. Fifty-six fifth- and sixth-grade children were identified as unaccepted by their peers and deficient in conversational skills. These children were then randomly assigned to one of four treatment conditions: (1) conversational skills training (individual coaching), (2) peer involvement under superordinate goals (group experience), (3) conversational skills training combined with peer involvement (group experience with coaching), and (4) a no-treatment control. Differential treatment effects were observed at both a posttreatment and follow-up assessment. As predicted, conversational skills training promoted skill acquisition and increased skillful social interaction. Peer involvement increased peer acceptance and children's self-perceptions of their social efficacy.

12. Bishop, John. 1989. *Vocational Education for At-Risk Youth: How Can It Be Made More Effective?* New York: Cornell University, Vocational Education Analysis and Support Center.

The first part of this report is a review of research on the effects of various types of vocational course work on dropout rates, probabilities of employment, earnings, productivity and basic skills. General findings from this review are that youth from disadvantaged backgrounds who take vocational courses are more likely to graduate, less likely to be unemployed, and more likely to obtain better-paying jobs. The earnings gains, however, depend on finding work that is related to one's training. Part II of the report presents a series of recommendations for improving vocational education's contribution to successful labor market transition of disadvantaged youth.

13. Bridgeman, D. 1981. "Enhanced Role Taking through Cooperative Interdependence: A Field Study." *Child Development*, 52:1231-1238. This study examined the effects of cooperative peer-initiated group learning were compared with other innovative and more traditional teacher-centered methods. Role-taking was assessed by using Chandler's cartoon series. Moral reasoning was determined through the use of Kohlberg's moral dilemmas. Role-taking was found to be enhanced by cooperative interdependence. Thus, intervention-based support was found for Piaget's assumption that cooperative peer exchange promotes perspective-taking; it did not, however, affect moral reasoning level.

14. Bucknam, R. and S. Brand. 1983. "EBCE Really Works: A Meta-Analysis on Experienced-Based Career Education." *Educational Leadership*, 40:66-71.

A meta-analysis of 80 evaluations of Experience Based Career Education (EBCE) programs, which are designed to bridge the gap between study and experience and between the classroom and community. The analysis used as its basic data the findings from all 80 third-party evaluations that were completed in all EBCE programs from January 1976 through January 1982. The measured outcomes fell into three areas: career-related skills, life attitude skills, and academic skills. EBCE students not only scored significant gains in all three of those outcome areas, but also showed significantly greater gains in all areas than did comparison students who received regular high school curriculum. Students at all socioeconomic levels from all types of residential areas profited from their EBCE experience.

15. Campbell, Robert, Janie Connell, Karen Kimmel Boyle and Robert D. Bhaerman. 1983. *Enhancing Career Development: Recommendations for Action—A Review of Empirical Studies of the Effects of Career Guidance.* Columbus, Ohio: Ohio State University, National Center for Research in Vocational Education.

16. Cauce, A.M. 1986. "Social Networks and Social Competence: Exploring the Effects of Early Adolescent Friendships." *American Journal of Community Psychology*, 14:607-628.

17. ______. 1987. "Social and Peer Competence in Early Adolescence: A Test of Domain-Specific Self-Perceived Competence." *Developmental Psychology*, 23:287-291.

18. Cave, G. and J. Quint. 1990. *Career Beginnings Impact Evaluation: Findings from a Program for Disadvantaged High School Students.* New York: Manpower Demonstration Research Corporation.

This evaluation of Career Beginnings was conducted by the Manpower Demonstration Research Corporation to assess the impact of the program. The report contains detailed information on program goals, participants and services. Program impacts were assessed using a rigorous research design, which involved random assignment to participant and control groups at seven program sites. Data were gathered through student interviews. No significant differences between the two groups were found in rates of high school graduation, which were high for both groups. While both groups enrolled in postsecondary institutions at similar rates, significantly more participants than controls enrolled in two- or four-year colleges, while significantly fewer participants than controls enrolled in vocational school. No significant differences in rates of retention in college after one year were found. There was considerable variation among the seven sites in the college enrollment rates of participants. This was attributed to differences in the implementation of the program at the different sites.

19. Coates, D.L. 1987. "Gender Differences in the Structure and Support Characteristics of Black Adolescents' Social Networks." *Sex Roles*, 17:667-687.

This study explores gender differences in the social network characteristics of 390 Black American adolescents with a mean age of 14.8. Each adolescent completed the Social Network Record (SNR), which yields scores representing the organizational/demographic structure and the quality of emotional support in the network. It was hypothesized that males and females would construct different network profiles. Gender differences in both structural and support characteristics were found. Females indicated that they had more frequent contact with network members, that their network was on average slightly older, and that they tended to see network members in more private settings. Females also estimated that they know more people than males did, though there were no differences between males and females in the actual number of network members listed and described. Males were much more likely to report having larger groups of intimate friends than did females. While females tended to nominate family members as role models and were more likely to indicate feeling close to both male and female peers, males indicated overwhelmingly that they felt close to male peers. The differences indicate that male and female adolescents experience very differently structured forms of social support. These results are discussed as they relate to gender differences found in achievement and other indices of competence during adolescence.

20. ______. 1985. "Relationships Between Self-Concept Measures and Social Network Characteristics for Black Adolescents." *Journal of Early Adolescence*, 5:319-338.

This study explores the relationship among social network structure and support characteristics and between these network characteristics and several self-concept dimensions for 343 middle-income black adolescents. Relationships between the family and the friend portions of the network are also examined. Each adolescent completed the one-and-a-half hour Social Network Record, which uses graphic and questionnaire stimulus materials to allow respondents to describe how their social relations are organized and function to provide emotional and material support. Network scales are related to factor scores of the Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory, to the Ziller nonverbal "identification with others" tasks and to three semantic differential scales designed to assess the adolescents' perception of how parents, male friends and female friends "see" them. Network size, frequency of contact with members and the average length of time members have been known are highly related, while density is unrelated to any other structural score. The relationship between the proximity of family members and frequency of contact with them is very high and positive, though this is not the case for the analogous friend measures. While network structure measures are more related to "how others see me" self-judgments and to a measure of social affiliation, the support scales are more related to overall self-esteem. The usefulness of a social network analysis for understanding the social interaction basis of the self-concept during adolescence is discussed.

21. Conger, Rand D., Katherine J. Conger, Glen H. Jr. Elder, Frederick O. Lorenz, Ronald L. Simons and Les B. Whitbeck. 1993. "Family Economic Stress and Adjustment of Early Adolescent Girls." *Developmental Psychology*, 29:206-219.

A family process model is proposed that links economic stress in family life to prosocial and problematic adolescent adjustment. With a sample of 220 seventh-grade girls living in intact families in the rural Midwest, the theoretical constructs in the model were measured using both trained observer and family member reports. In general, results were consistent with the proposed model. Economic pressures led to depression and demoralization for both parents, the result of which was greater marital conflict and disruption in skillful parenting. The emotions and behaviors of both mothers and fathers were almost equally affected by financial difficulties, and disruptions in each parent's child-rearing behaviors had adverse consequences for adolescent development. Parents' depressed mood and disrupted child-rearing practices both directly affected girls' adjustment.

22. Conrad, Daniel and Diane Hedin. 1982. "The Impact of Experiential Education on Adolescent Development." *Child and Youth Services*, 4:57-76.

This article reviews 30 experiential programs for positive youth outcomes, using a pre-post design (though not all groups get all measures) and comparison groups for six of the program types. The study finds that youth in some experiential program improved in self-esteem. (Results are mixed here.) Gains in moral reasoning scores for two groups were tested in comparison to one control group. Students in the experimental group scored higher on social and personal responsibility scale. Experimental groups had more positive attitudes toward adults and toward other people in their groups while the comparisons showed a negative turn in these attitudes. Experimental groups had more positive attitudes toward community service.

23. Cooper, C.R., H.D. Grotevant and S.M. Condon. 1983. "Individuality and Connectedness in the Family as a Context for Adolescent Identity Formation and Role-Taking Skill," pp. 43-59 in *New Directions for Child Development: Adolescent Development in Family*, edited by H.D. Grotevant and C.R. Cooper, vol. 22. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

This chapter has two purposes: first, to present the model of family communication developed in order to examine links between family system functioning and adolescent development; second, to report a test of the proposition that family processes indicative of individuality and connectedness can predict the adolescent's effectiveness in identity exploration and role-taking skill. In this chapter, we will focus primarily on measures of the of the parent-child relationship as one approach to the larger issue of conceptualizing whole family system dynamics. For analyses of the role of the marital relationship in adolescent development, see Cooper and others (1983).

24. D'Amico, Ronald. 1984. "Does Employment During High School Impair Academic Progress?" *Sociology of Education*, 57:152-164.

This article documents the extent of high school employment and evaluates its relationship to study time, free time spent at school, class rank, knowledge of occupational tasks, and the probability of dropping out before completing high school. Results show that more extensive work involvement is associated with decreased study time and decreased free time at school for some race/sex groups, but no effects on class rank were discovered. Very extensive work involvement of white male sophomores and white female juniors is associated with an increase in their rate of dropping out, but less intensive work involvement among those in most race/sex groups in grade 11 actually appears to lead to increased rates of high school completion. That high school employment may foster high school achievement is explained by a congruence hypothesis, which holds that there is a correspondence between the personality traits promoted and rewarded by employers and those promoted and rewarded by teachers.

25. D'Amico, Ronald and Paula Baker. 1984. "The Nature and Consequences of High School Employment," in *Pathways to the Future: A Report on the National Longitudinal Surveys of Youth Labor Market Experience in 1982, Vol. IV*, edited by Paula Baker, Susan

Carpenter, Joan Crowley, Ronald D'Amico, Chongsoo Kim, William Morgan and John Wielgosz. Columbus, Ohio: Ohio State University, Center for Human Resource Research.

26. Dauber, S.L. and J.L. Epstein. 1989. "Parents' Attitudes and Practices in Involvement in Inner-City Elementary and Middle Schools." *Paper presented at the American Educational Research Association meetings*, San Francisco.

27. Dick, James C. 1993. *Business/Education Partnerships: What We're Learning—Summary of the California Education Research Cooperative's Findings and Insights Gained Over Two Years as Outside Evaluators of the Federal Partnership Demonstration Project at East San Gabriel Valley Regional Occupational Programs*. Riverside, Calif.: University of California, Riverside, School of Education.

28. Dubow, Eric F. and John Tisak. 1989. "The Relationship Between Stressful Life Events and Adjustment in Elementary School Children: The Role of Social Support and Social Problem-Solving Skills." *Child Development*, 60:1412-1423.

This study investigated the relation between stressful life events and adjustment in elementary school children, with particular emphasis on the potential main and stress-buffering effects of social support and social problem-solving skills. Third- through fifth-graders (N = 361) completed social support and social problem-solving measures. Their parents provided ratings of stress in the child's environment and ratings of the child's behavioral adjustment. Teachers provided ratings of the children's behavioral and academic adjustment. Hierarchical multiple regressions revealed significant stress-buffering effects for social support and problem-solving skills on teacher-rated behavior problems, that is, higher levels of social support and problem-solving skills moderated the relation between stressful life events and behavior problems. A similar stress-buffering effect was found for problem-solving skills on grade-point average and parent-rated behavior problems. In terms of children's competent behaviors, analyses supported a main effect model of social support and problem-solving. Possible processes accounting for the main and stress-buffering effects are discussed.

29. Dubow, Eric F. and Douglas G. Ullman. 1989. "Assessing Social Support in Elementary School Children: The Survey of Children's Social Support." *Journal of Clinical Child Psychology*, 18:52-64.

This paper used the self-report Survey of Children's Social Support (SOCSS) to assess three potential aspects of social support in elementary school age children: the frequency of supportive behaviors available from the child's support network (Scale of Available Behaviors, or SAB); the child's subjective appraisals of family, teacher, and peer support (APP); and the size of the child's social support network (NET). With a sample of 361 third- through fifth-graders, test-retest and internal consistency reliabilities were acceptable. Moderate correlations existed between SAB and APP. However, neither of these two measures was related to NET. In addition, significant relations between the SOCSS and other indices of social support and self-esteem provided evidence for the validity of the SOCSS.

30. Dunn, Susanne E., Martha Putallaz, Blair H. Sheppard and Rena Lindstrom. 1987. "Social Support and Adjustment in Gifted Adolescents." *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 79:467-473.

The authors investigated the role of perceived social support in facilitating adjustment to residential high school for the gifted in science and math. The relation between social support and adjustment appeared to depend on the sex of the student and the source of support, and the specific type of adjustment examined. Successful overall adjustment to the school environment was related to perceived support from family, whereas psychological adjustment showed a clear relation to perceived support in general. Perceived support from peers related to psychological adjustment only for male adolescents. Female adolescents appeared to seek other sources of support when they perceived support from a particular source to be low. Thus, adjustment problems for female adolescents appeared to result only when they were unable to locate other sources.

31. Eccles, Jacquelynne S., Carol Midgley, Allan Wigfeld, Christy Miller Buchanan, David Reuman, Constance Flanagan and Douglas MacIver. 1993. "Development During Adolescence: The Impact of Stage-Environment Fit on Young Adolescents' Experiences in Schools and in Families." *American Psychologist*, 48:90-101.

Although most individuals pass through adolescence without excessively high levels of "storm and stress," many do experience difficulty. Why? Is there something unique about this developmental period that puts adolescents at risk for difficulty? This article focuses on this question and advances the hypothesis that some of the negative psychological changes associated with adolescent development result from a mismatch between the needs of developing adolescents and the opportunities afforded them by their social environments. It provides examples of how this mismatch develops in the school and in the home and how it is linked to negative age-related changes in early adolescents' motivation and self-perceptions. Ways in which more developmentally appropriate social environments can be created are discussed.

32. Entwisle, D.R., K.A. Alexander, D. Cadigan and A. Pallas. 1986. "The Schooling Process in First Grade: Two Samples a Decade Apart." *American Education Research Journal*, 23:587-613.

This paper presents parallel estimates of structural equation models to explain children's educational attainment over first grade. One set of estimates is based on a three-school sample drawn in 1971-77. The other set of estimates is based on a 20-school sample drawn in 1982-83. The evidence suggests that, within reasonable limits, results are comparable. The models capture some of the social influences that shape children's academic marks, and to a lesser degree, the influences that shape their conduct marks and self-expectations in both sets of data. The strategies of data collection and modeling used here, which were especially developed for use with young children, have thus stood up to two field trials and to the passage of time.

33. Epstein, J.L. and J.M. McPartland. 1976. *Classroom Organization and the Quality of School Life.* Baltimore: Johns Hopkins University, Center for Social Organization of Schools.

34. Felner, Robert D., Melanie Ginter and Judith Primavera. 1982. "Primary Prevention During School Transitions: Social Support and Environmental Structure." *American Journal of Community Psychology*, 10:277-290.

The nature and evaluation of a primary prevention project for students during the transition to high school are presented. In order to facilitate students' coping efforts during this transition, the project sought to increase the level of social support available as well as to reduce the degree of flux and complexity in the school setting. Midyear and end of ninth grade assessments were done of Project and matched Control students' self-concepts, their perception of the school environment, and their eighth- and ninth-grade attendance and grade averages examined. By the end of ninth grade, Project participants showed significantly better attendance records and grade point averages as well as more stable self-concepts than controls. Further, by the final evaluation point, Project students also reported perceiving the school environment as having greater clarity of expectations and organizational structure and higher levels of teacher support and involvement than did non-project Controls.

35. Finch, Michael, Michael Shanahan, Jeylan Mortimer and Seongryeol Ryu. 1991. "Work Experience and Control Orientation in Adolescence." *American Sociological Review*, 56:596-611.

Adolescent orientations toward and expectancies about competent action are important predictors of adult attainment. Using panel data, this study shows that part-time work experiences and mastery orientation are reciprocally related among adolescents. Prior control orientation measured by Pearlin's mastery scale, significantly influenced the character of boys' and girls' subsequent work experiences. Furthermore, extrinsic conditions and stressors at work were found to affect adolescents' control orientation. For boys, conditions of opportunity at work had a significant positive effect on 10th-grade mastery, whereas conflicts between school and work fostered a more external control orientation. Boys' educational plans for the future moderated the effects of conflict between school and work. Girls' evaluations of their pay were found to support an internal control orientation; however, responsibility for things that were perceived as being beyond their control engendered a more external control orientation.

36. Glenn, A.D. 1972. "Elementary School Children's Attitudes Toward Politics," in *Political Youth, Traditional Schools: National and International Perspectives*, edited by B.G. Massialas. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall.

37. Greenberger, Ellen and Steinberg, Laurence D. 1986. *When Teenagers Work.* New York: Basic Books.

38. Hamilton, Stephen F. and Jane L. Powers. 1990. "Failed Expectations: Working-Class Girls' Transition from School to Work." *Youth and Society*, 22:241-262.

This study reported here was designed to shed light on how working-class girls who do not enroll in college move from school into full-time employment and what impact their previous work experience has on that transition. The findings suggest directions for improving that transition.

39. Hansell, S. 1985. "Adolescent Friendship Networks and Distress in School." *Social Forces*, 63:698-715.

This study investigated the association between the structure of adolescent friendship networks, and distress responses in a private school. The 254 students in grades nine through 12 completed sociometric questionnaires, and measures of physiological, psychological, and behavioral distress. Results showed, first, that indices of network structure were more strongly associated with distress responses than were sociometric counts of relationships. Second, some dimensions of network structure were associated with reduced distress, but others were associated with increased distress. Third, physiological, psychological and behavioral distress responses exhibited different patterns of association with network structure. Overall, psychological responses were positively associated with higher blood pressure, suggesting that some network roles might enhance psychological well-being while simultaneously involving physiological costs.

40. Hartley, W. 1976. *Prevention Outcomes of Small Group Education with School Children: An Epidemiologic Follow-Up of the Kansas City School Behavior Project*. Kansas City: University of Kansas Medical Center.

41. Hauser, S.T., S.I. Powers, G.G. Naom, A.M. Jacobson, B. Weiss and D.J. Follansbee. 1984. "Familial Contexts of Adolescent Ego Development." *Child Development*, 55:195-213.

This scheme was constructed to identify family interactions that are conceptually relevant to adolescent ego development. First is presented the theoretical rationale and reliability properties of the codes, then the results of applying the scales to observations of 61 families, each consisting of two parents and an adolescent, drawn from matched high school and psychiatric populations. All families are upper and (predominantly) upper-middle class. Each member completed the Loevinger Sentence Completion Test, then participated in revealed-differences task, using responses to Kohlberg Moral Dilemmas as discussion stimuli. Transcripts of these audio-recorded discussions formed the data base for the family analyses. After control for patient status and adolescent age, adolescent and parent ego-development scores still contributed o explained variance in family interactions. Adolescent ego development was positively associated with adolescent enabling behaviors (e.g., problem-solving, empathy). In contrast, there were negative correlations between constraining behaviors (e.g., devaluing, withholding) and adolescent ego development. Parental behaviors were significantly associated with (a) parent ego development, and (b) adolescent ego development. The third dimension of the system, discourse change, also showed theoretically expected strong correlations between progressive discourse change and ego development. The discussion comments on the importance of now proceeding to sequence analyses in order to explore questions of directionality.

42. Hawley, W.D. 1977. "Reforming the Civics Curriculum through Restructuring of Teacher Behavior." *The American Political Science Review*, 71:319-325.

43. Hawley, W.D. and J. Eyler. 1983. "Teacher Behavior and Interest in the Ideas of Others: A Demonstration of the Influence of Teachers on Students' Democratic Values." *Paper presented at the American Educational Research Association meetings*, Montreal, Canada.

44. Hoffman, M.L. 1980. "Moral Development in Adolescence," pp. 295-343 in *Handbook of Adolescent Psychology*, edited by J. Adelson. New York: Wiley.

There has been considerable theorizing but surprisingly little research on adolescent moral development, probably because the predominant interest of most developmental researchers has been infancy and early childhood. Those investigators who have obtained data on adolescents typically lack a developmental perspective, and with few exceptions, comparable data on other age groups are lacking. As a result, it is often difficult to tell those findings that are peculiar to adolescence and those that may be characteristic of other periods as well. With these limitation in mind, I shall try to summarize the main theories, pointing up their limitations and bringing in pertinent findings where available. We begin with cognitive disequilibrium and psychoanalysis, which have dominated the theoretical literature, followed by a third, newer approach that to a greater degree attempts a synthesis of cognitive and affective processes. After that, the research on the effects of socialization experiences, with parents and peers, and on sex differences in moral internalization is reviewed. The research on student activism insofar as it bears on adolescent morality is also discussed. Finally, an overall framework for viewing adolescent morality in development perspective is offered and suggestions for research are made.

45. ______. 1970. "Moral Development," pp. 261-361 in *Handbook of Child Psychology*, edited by P. Mussen. New York: Wiley.

46. Hultsman, Wendy. 1992. "Constraints to Activity Participation in Early Adolescence." *Journal of Early Adolescence*, 12:280-299.

This study examined why early adolescents do not become involved in or drop out of organized recreation activities in which they have an interest or had previously been involved. The subjects were 940 fifth- through eighth-graders in a large metropolitan area of a southwestern state. Early adolescent involvement in activities was perceived to be constrained by parents denying permission to join, lack of skills, and lack of transportation. Loss of interest, dislike for leaders, moving, and feeling too old were perceived reasons for ceasing participation. Results also suggested that early adolescents perceive constraints somewhat differently than do adults. Opportunities should be taken to capitalize on circumstances crucial to early adolescent development. To provide a continuity of challenge and interests as individuals move through various life stages, activity providers should focus marketing efforts on constraints identified by this age group as well as extolling the benefits and satisfactions derived from activities.

47. Johnson, D.W., R.T. Johnson and D. Anderson. 1983. "Social Interdependence and Classroom Climate." *The Journal of Psychology*, 114:135-142.

Responses to a classroom climate instrument were made by 859 students in grades five through nine in three urban and suburban midwestern school districts and were submitted to correlational analyses of relationships between scales measuring attitudes toward social interdependence and attitudes toward relationships with peers and teachers. Students who participated frequently experienced cooperative learning. Cooperativeness and frequently participating in cooperative learning situations were positively related to perceptions of support, help, and friendship from teachers and peers.

48. Lewin, K., R. Lippitt and R. White. 1939. "Patterns of Aggressive Behavior in Experimentally Created Social Climates." *Journal of Clinical Psychology*, 10:271-299.

49. Lickona, T. 1977. "Creating the Just Community with Children." *Theory into Practice*, 16:97-104.

The effort to use the life of the classroom as a"naturalistic" moral curriculum has guided the work we have done in Project Change with early childhood and elementary school teachers in Central New York. The questions posed are, "How is it possible to use all the roles, relationships, and interactions in the classroom to foster the moral growth of children? How can the teacher and the children, working together, create a positive moral climate of caring and respect that pervades the whole human environment?" We are asking, in effect, how to create Kohlberg's "just community" scaled to the child's world.

50. Lorence, Jon and Jeylan T. Mortimer. 1985. "Job Involvement through the Life Course: A Panel Study of Three Age Groups." *American Sociological Review*, 50:618-638.

Utilizing panel data for three age groups from the 1972-73 and 1977 Quality of Employment Surveys, this study investigates the interrelations of work experiences and subjective job involvement in three age groups that are indicative of different career stages. Whereas job involvement is quite volatile in the initial stage of the work career, it becomes more stable as workers grow older, supporting the "aging stability hypothesis." Work experiences and rewards also change less as workers age, suggesting that the growing stability with age in job involvement occurs in the context of an increasingly stable work environment. Work autonomy exerts a significant influence on job involvement in all age groups. However, the fact that this intrinsic dimension of work has the strongest influence on involvement in the youngest cohort supports the contention that there is a highly formative stage in young adulthood, after which time the person becomes more resistant to environmental pressures to change. The findings also suggest that the effects of job involvement on occupational achievement could be specific to the middle stage of the career. The results of this study indicate the potential of applying a life-span developmental perspective to the study of the sources and consequences of job involvement.

51. Maccoby, Eleanor E. 1986. *Social Development: Psychological Growth and the Parent-Child Relationship.* San Diego: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich.

This chapter attempts to integrate knowledge about the effects of different styles of child rearing on the whole range of social behavior. First, several important studies that focus on more than one behavioral domain are reviewed. These studies contrast the child-rearing practices of parents whose children readily develop good competence in a number of respects with the practices of parents whose children have been slow to acquire age-appropriate competencies. A summary of findings, drawing on studies presented in earlier chapters as well as those discussed in this chapter, is included. Finally, consideration is given to what makes parents behave the way they do—conditions that influence the strategies parents use to carry out their child-rearing responsibilities.

52. Marsden, Peter V. and Jeanne S. Hurlbert. 1988, June. "Social Resources and Mobility Outcomes: A Replication and Extension." *Social Forces*, 66:1038-1059.

This article replicates and extends studies of job-matching by Lin, Ensel, and Vaughn (1981) and Bridges and Villemez (1986), concentrating on the effects of social network resources on the following outcomes of job-changes: occupational prestige, wages, industrial sector, firm size, possession of authority, and closeness of supervision. The replication confirms major findings of prior work, and demonstrates that these are not affected by incidental selection bias or the absence of controls for the immediately preceding levels of outcome variables. The extensions, however, qualify the social resources argument by indicating that effects of different social resource measures are largely outcome-specific: no single measure among those studied appears as a general indicator of "social capital" providing advantages in matching people to a broad range of valued outcomes. The analyses also show no significant net effects of tie strength on either mobility outcomes or access to social resources.

53. McGuire, K.D. and J.R. Weisz. 1982. "Social Cognition and Behavior Correlates of Preadolescent Chumships." *Child Development*, 53:1478-1484.

The present study was an attempt to distinguish behavioral correlates of friendship from correlates of popularity. Friendship and popularity were construed as orthogonal factors. Friendship was defined in terms consistent with Sullivan's theory of pre-adolescent chumship. Popularity was operationally defined in terms of a traditional peer nomination measure. As predicted by Sullivan, children with friends were more likely than those without friends to display high levels of altruism and affective perspective-taking skill. By contrast, no measures showed significant effects of popularity. Overall, the findings suggest that operational definitions growing out of Sullivan's theory could enrich our understanding of friendship in childhood.

54. McMullan, Bernard and Phyllis Snyder. 1987. *Allies in Education: Schools and Business Working Together for At-Risk Youth (Vol. 1).* Philadelphia: Public/Private Ventures.

This report analyzes the school/business phenomenon as it is represented by nine collaborations that employ a wide variety of approaches to serving at-risk youth. The report places recent school/business collaborations in the context of partnerships that have existed between education and business throughout this century; characterizes the various activities and interventions that collaborations have undertaken; describes the role of business in schools, business partners and education in general; and discusses the implications of these findings for collaborative efforts both now and in the future.

55. Mecartney, Crystal A., Melanie B. Styles and Kristine V. Morrow. 1994, December. *Mentoring in the Juvenile Justice System: Findings from Two Pilot Programs.* Philadelphia: Public/Private Ventures.

An evaluation of a pilot demonstration of mentoring in juvenile justice institutions operated by the states of Georgia and Missouri in Atlanta and St. Louis. The demonstration model was designed to bridge a youth's incarceration in a juvenile justice institution and his/her discharge to the community. The research included documentation of start-up, recruitment and operations, as well as collection and analysis of baseline and follow-up questionnaires administered to all mentors and youth; weekly mentor logs that recorded adult/youth interactions; interviews with mentors, youth and agency personnel; recorded observations of training sessions; and youth's case files and program records. Overall, the findings from this research are consistent with those of other mentoring programs P/PV has assessed: without an organizational structure to recruit, screen, train and support mentors and to facilitate their meetings with youth, the projects could not create and sustain a significant number of effective relationships.

56. Medrich, Elliott. 1991. *Young Adolescents and Discretionary Time Use: The Nature of Life Outside School.*

Paper describes patterns in five domains of out-of-school time use: activities alone or with friends; activities with parents; in-home or out-of-home chores, jobs and responsibilities; organized activities including participation in recreational and cultural programs supervised by adults; television viewing and use of other media.

57. Meyer, Robert H. and David A. Wise. 1982. "High School Preparation and Early Labor Force Experience," pp. 277-348 in *The Youth Labor Market Problem: Its Nature, Causes, and Consequences*, edited by Richard D. Freeman and David A. Wise. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

This chapter analyzes the relationship between high school curriculum, work experience, and academic achievement on the one hand and early labor force employment and wage rate on the other. We find that work experience acquired while in high school is strongly related to later employment. Academic performance in high school is also related to successful labor employment. Academic performance in high school is also related to successful labor market experience. But we find no significant effect of current forms of high school vocational training on early labor force experience. Thus the weight of our evidence implies that programs that emphasize work experience for youth, together with general academic education, have the greatest chance of enhancing their subsequent labor force experiences.

58. Miller, K.E. and T.J. Berndt. 1987. "Adolescent Friendship and School Orientation." *Society for Research in Child Development.* Baltimore.

59. Mortimer, Jeylan T., Michael Finch, Michael Shanahan and Seongryeol Ryu. 1992. "Work Experience, Mental Health, Behavioral Adjustment." *Journal of Research on Adolescence*, 2:25-57.

This study examines the relationship between early work experience and adolescent mental health and behavioral adjustment. Using data obtained from 1,001 ninth-graders about current jobs, attributes of work are examined in relation to dimensions of mental health (self-esteem and self-derogation, depressive affect and well-being, and internal and external control orientations) and indicators of behaviors adjustment (smoking, alcohol use, and problem behavior in school). Boys and girls appear to experience psychological benefits when they perceive their jobs as providing skills that will be useful to them in the future. However, boys who report more stress at work also manifest more depressive affect, more self-derogation, less internality, and a more external control orientation. For girls, the level of integration of school and work had pervasive associations with the psychological outcomes. The findings indicate the fruitfulness of further investigation of the influence of work experience on adolescent psychological and behavioral change.

60. Mortimer, Jeylan and Michael Finch. 1992. *Work Experience in Adolescence.* Philadelphia: Public/Private Ventures.

This report examines the prevalence and characteristics of youth employment among a community sample of youth over a four-year period, starting with the first year (ninth grade) of high school. The sample was drawn from the Youth Development Study data set. Issues covered include: the process of movement into work, that is, which youth are more and less likely to be employed, why youth seek jobs, and changes in their reasons for seeking employment as they grow older; how youth find jobs, and changes in their job search strategies over time. The features of adolescent work through high school and the patterns of change and stability in work experiences over time are also examined. The final section looks at the implications of key work experiences and the changes in them over time, for developmental outcomes (e.g., work values, self-efficacy, psychological well-being). Overall, the report concludes that the quality of adolescent work, not employment status, or the intensity of work, is what matters for developmental outcomes. Few differences were found between workers and non-workers. The quality of work, especially the opportunity to learn useful skills, appears to matter most for development of work values.

61. Mortimer et al. 1990. "Gender and Work in Adolescence." *Youth and Society*, Vol. 22(2).

62. Mortimer, J. and M.D. Finch. 1986. *The Effects of Part-Time Work on Adolescent Self-Concept and Achievement.*

63. Mussen, P.H., J.J. Conger and J. Kagan. 1974. *Child Development and Personality.* New York: Harper and Row.

64. Nair, Dev and Leonard A. Jason. 1985. "An Investigation and Analysis of Social Networks Among Children." *Special Services in the Schools*, 1:43-52.

Although many studies have been directed toward investigating different dimensions of adults' social networks, little has been done with studying children's social networks. The present paper describes a scale that has been developed for assessing the social networks of children. Results indicate that a network where one is not similar to one's peers (on age, sex, and race), and that contains a large number of members who provide physical assistance is predictive of adjustment in school-age children. The implications of the findings for special services providers in schools are discussed.

65. Oden, S. and S.R. Asher. 1977. "Coaching Children in Social Skills for Friendship Making." *Child Development*, 48:495-506.

Third- and fourth-grade socially isolated children were coached in social skills. The coaching condition included (1) instructions from an adult in social skills relevant to friendship making, (2) playing games with peers to practice social skills, and (3) a post-play review session with the coach. In a second condition (peer pairing), isolated children played the same games with the same peers but did not receive verbal instruction or review. In a third condition (control), isolated children were taken out of the classroom with the same peers but played solitary games and did not interact or receive verbal instruction or review. Pretest-posttest sociometric assessment of the four-week training indicated that the coaching group increased on a play sociometric rating significantly more that the peer-pairing and control groups. The coaching children also received a greater but not significant gain in friendship nominations. No significant findings were obtained on the work sociometric rating or on behavioral measures. A follow-up assessment one year later indicated continued progress on the play sociometric rating for the children who had received coaching.

66. Owens, Thomas R. 1982. "Experienced-Based Career Education: Summary and Implications of Research and Evaluation Findings." *Child and Youth Services Journal*, 4:77-91.

The author summarizes the results of several evaluations of experience-based career education programs and concludes that they have a positive effect on career, cognitive, and affective outcomes.

67. Parker, J.G. and S.R. Asher. 1987. "Peer Relations and Later Personal Adjustment: Are Low-Accepted Children 'At Risk?'." *Psychological Bulletin*, 102:357-389.

In this review, we examine the oft-made claim that peer-relationship difficulties in childhood predict serious adjustment problems in later life. The article begins with a framework for conceptualizing and assessing children's peer difficulties and a discussion of conceptual and methodological issues in longitudinal risk research. Following this, three indexes of problematic peer relationships (acceptance, aggressiveness, and shyness/withdrawal) are evaluated as predictors of three later outcomes (dropping out of school, criminality and psychopathology). The relationship between peer difficulties and later maladjustment is examined in terms of both the consistency and strength of prediction. A review and analysis of the literature indicates general support for the hypothesis that children with poor peer adjustment are at risk for later life difficulties. Support is clearest for the outcomes of dropping out and criminality. It is also clearest for low acceptance and aggressiveness as predictors, whereas a link between shyness/withdrawal and later maladjustment has not yet been adequately tested. The article concludes with a critical discussion of the implicit models that have guided past research in this area and a set of recommendations for the next generation of research on the risk hypothesis.

68. Peterson, Gary W. and Geoffry K. Leigh. 1990. "The Family and Social Competence in Adolescence, Vol. 3," pp. 97-138, in *Developing Social Competency in Adolescence*, edited by Thomas P. Guillotta, Gerald R. Adams and Raymond Montemayor. Newbury Park, Calif.: Sage Publications.

The purpose of this chapter is to examine the parent-youth relationship and the larger family system as contexts for the development of social competence during adolescence. Consistent with this objective, social competence is conceptualized as a developmental phenomenon that is a product of social interaction in families. As such, social competence is difficult to define and both general and specific definitions are necessary to clarify its meaning. Important subdimensions of social competence include (a) internal or cognitive resources, (b) a balance between sociability and individuality, and (c) social skills in reference to peers. The meaning of socially competent or adaptive behavior varies in terms of ethnicity and cultural variables, developmental period, situational factors, and gender role expectations. Important aspects of parent-adolescent relationships that either predict or are associated with adolescent social competence include parental styles, behavior, modeling, and power. Dimensions of family process, structure, and communication that are drawn from systems perspectives are examined for their association with adolescent social competence. Other topics include the reciprocal effect of adolescent social competence on parents and families, with additional attention to social-structural variables that have impact on parent-adolescent relationships.

69. Powers, S.I., S.T. Hauser, J.M. Schwartz, G.G. Noam and A.M. Jacobson. 1983. "Adolescent Ego Development and Family Interaction: A Structural-Developmental Perspective," pp. 5-26, in *New Directions for Child Development: Adolescent Development in the Family*, edited by H.D. Grotevant and C.R. Cooper, Vol. 22. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

This chapter describes our examination of the relationship between adolescent ego development and family interaction. Using data from the first wave of our study, we will address three major questions: How are family interactions associated with arrested, delayed, or advanced adolescent ego development? Is the relationship between ego development and family interaction different in families of psychiatrically ill adolescents and in families of adolescents with no psychiatric illness? Can structural-developmental psychology provide a useful guide for investigating the relationship between adolescent ego development and family interaction? We will describe a new family interaction assessment technique and present cross-sectional results from the first year of our longitudinal study. Our hypothesis about the relationship between family processes and adolescent ego development and our measures of development and our measures of developmental and family interaction variables are based on structural developmental perspective.

70. Rossell, C.H. and W.D. Hawley. 1981. "The Relationship Between Teacher Behavior Toward Students and Student Political Attitudes: The Development of Political Cynicism." *Paper presented at the American Educational Research Association meetings*, Los Angeles. ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED204439.

By examining the attitudes and perceptions of 1,625 fifth-grade students in North Carolina, this study tested the hypothesis that the way teachers treat their students can have an effect on their political attitudes. It was found that when teachers treat students fairly and show interest in their ideas and problems, students are less politically cynical. This effect is stronger for white children than for black children, though it also exists for the latter. It was also found that black children are more cynical than white children and perceive themselves as being treated less fairly than white children do. While white childrens' parents' education and support for their schooling is negatively and linearly related to political cynicism, black children show a curvilinear relationship between parents' education and support for schoolwork and their political cynicism occurs because high levels of parental education and support for schoolwork are associated with high levels of political knowledge regarding the low general status of blacks in this society.

71. Rubin, Z. 1980. *Children's Friendships.* Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press.

72. Rumberger, R.W. and T.N. Daymont. 1989. "The Economic Value of Academic and Vocational Training Acquired in High School," pp. 157-192, in *Youth and the Labor Market: Analyses of the National Longitudinal Survey*, edited by M.E. Borus. Kalamazoo, Mich.: W.E. Upjohn Institute for Employment Research.

This study uses the 1979 National Longitudinal Survey to determine whether differences in high school curriculum should lead to differences in labor market opportunities. It refines previous studies on this issue by looking at differences in high school curricula in greater detail and by relating high school training to labor market outcomes more specifically, including an assessment of whether a student's vocational training was used on the job. Race and sex differences are also examined.

73. Sampson, Robert J. and W. Byron Groves. 1989. "Community Structure and Crime: Testing Social-Disorganization Theory." *American Journal of Sociology*, 94:774-802.

Shaw and McKay's influential theory of community social disorganization has never been directly tested. To address this, a community-level theory that builds on Shaw and McKay's original model is formulated and tested. The general hypothesis is that low economic status, ethnic heterogeneity, residential mobility, and family disruption lead to community social disorganization, which in turn increases crime and delinquency rates. A community's level of social organization is measured in terms of local friendship networks, control of street-corner teenage peer groups, and prevalence of organizational participation. The model is first tested by analyzing data for 238 localities in Great Britain constructed from a 1982 national survey of 10,905 residents. The model is then replicated on an independent national sample of 11,030 residents of 300 British localities in 1984. Results from both surveys support the theory and show that between-community variations in social disorganization transmit much of the effect of community structural characteristics on rates of both criminal victimization and criminal offending.

74. Schafer, W.E. and M. Armer. 1968. "Athletes Are Not Inferior Students." *Trans-Action*, 6:61-62.

Does the heavy emphasis on sports evident in most of our high schools interfere with what is supposed to be the central purpose of schools—education? Does sports downgrade the value of that students put on intellectual effort? Does it reduce the learning of the athletes themselves? This study examined the complete high school records of 585 boys to answer these questions. These boys, who attended two mid-western high schools, were 10th-graders in 1961. Most had graduated by 1964. The grade-point averages and dropout rates of athletes were compared with those of non-athletes, first without controlling for personal and socioeconomic differences. These differences were then taken into account by matching each athlete with a non-athlete on intelligence-test scores, occupations of fathers, curricula, and GPAs. The major finding suggested that participation in sports generally seemed to have little or no effect on student's scholarship. Moreover, it seemed to actually help certain students academically, especially those students from poor an disadvantaged groups that usually had the most trouble in school.

75. Schinke, Steven P., Mario Orlandi and Kristin C. Cole. 1992. "Boys and Girls Clubs in Public Housing Developments: Prevention Services for Youth At Risk." *Journal of Community Psychology*, OSAP Special Issue: 118-128.

This article describes and evaluates the impact of Boys and Girls Clubs recently installed in residential public housing developments. Because most prevention interventions to date have been school-based, this study marks a development in prevention interventions for problem behavior among high-risk youth. The evaluation compares sites without Boys and Girls Clubs to sites with both previously and recently installed Boys and Girls Clubs. The results show that public housing developments with Boys and Girls Clubs have less drug-related activity, measurably fewer damaged and unoccupied units, and increased parental involvement in youth activities.

76. Sewell, W.H. and V.P. Shah. 1968. "Parents' Education and Children's Educational Aspirations and Achievements." *American Sociological Review*, 33:191-209.

In this study of a large randomly selected cohort of Wisconsin high school seniors who were followed for a seven-year period, multivariate cross-tabular and regression analyses showed that father's education has slightly stronger effect than mother's education on perceived parental encouragement, college plans, college attendance, and college graduation for males, but that both father's and mother's education have almost equal effect for females. Mother's education has a modest effect independent of father's education, but the independent effect of mother's education is stronger for females than for males. When parents have discrepant levels of educational achievement, the answer to the question of which parent's education has more effect on educational aspiration and achievement depends on the child's sex and intelligence level as well as on each parent's level of educational achievement. In terms of the additional amount of variance explained, the interaction effect is negligible for all of the dependent variables. Discrepancy in parents' educational achievements is far less important in motivating children to high-level aspiration and achievement than is consistently high educational achievement of both parents.

77. Shanahan, Michael. 1992. "Gender Differences in Adolescent Work Experiences, Social Supports, and Depressed Mood." *Paper presented at the American Sociological Association meetings*, Pittsburgh, Pa.

78. Slavin, R. 1991. "Synthesis of Research on Cooperative Learning." *Educational Leadership*, 48:71-82.

This article synthesizes the findings of studies that have compared cooperative learning in elementary and secondary schools to traditionally taught control groups studying the same objectives over a period of at least four weeks (and up to a full school year or more). A brief summary of the effects of cooperative learning on achievement and non-cognitive outcome is also presented.

79. Snyder, E.E. 1969. "A Longitudinal Analysis of the Relationship Between High School Values, Social Participation, and Educational-Occupational Achievement." *Sociology of Education*, 42:261-270.

A longitudinal study was made of student values and social participation at the time of high school graduation and five years later. The findings indicate: (1) the values held in high school change radically by early adulthood, (2) students with value orientations that stress participation in activities and athletics participate more in school activities and organizations than do students with an academic value orientation, (3) high school values show no significant relationship to future educational and occupational achievement, and (4) social participation in high school is positively correlated with educational and occupational achievement.

80. Spady, W.G. 1971. "Status, Achievement, and Motivation in the American High School." *School Review*, 79:379-403.

This article explored the formal and informal competitive structures of the high school and their consequences not only for the development of success goals but also for the likelihood of their realization over time. The concept of achievement motivation is explicitly dealt with in the analysis by treating the academic, extracurricular, and status systems of the school as variables rather than constants. The student's intrinsic motivation and position in each of these systems is related to both his desire for a college education and his chances of realizing those goals over a four-year period after graduating. The data were gathered from 297 senior boys attending two neighboring West Coast high schools in September 1963. Students were sampled again in 1967. The major finding is that by far the greatest facilitator of college success is the extracurricular involvement of the student during high school. Participants have a 37 percent greater chance of fulfilling their college goals than do nonparticipants, net of their academic performance, intrinsic motivation, and peer status perceptions. The four factors measured here account for an overall difference of 71 percent in the likelihood that students with aspirations for college as high school seniors will obtain more than one year of college within the next four years.

81. Steel, Lauri. 1991. "Early Work Experience Among White and Non-White Youths: Implications for Subsequent Enrollment and Employment." *Youth and Society*, 22:419-447.

Using data from the National Longitudinal Youth Survey, this study examines the impact of youth's work experience at age 17 and 18 on school enrollment and employment during the subsequent two-year period. It also attempts to determine what aspects of early work experience diminish or enhance subsequent school enrollment and employment, and to what extent these relationships differ by gender, ethnicity, and the baseline educational status of the youth. Overall, findings show that early employment has a somewhat positive effect on subsequent enrollment, while early work experience per se does not effect subsequent employment. Among white youth, early job intensity and status were found to benefit later enrollment and employment.

82. Steinberg, Laurence, Suzanne Fegley and Sanford M. Dornbusch. 1993. "Negative Impact of Part-Time Work on Adolescent Adjustment: Evidence from a Longitudinal Study." *Developmental Psychology*, Vol. 29, No. 2, pp.171-180.

Researchers disagree over whether negataive correlates of extensive part-time employment during adolescence are consequences of working or are due to differential selection into the labor force. This study examines the over-time relation between school-year employment and adjustment in a heterogeneous sample of approximately 1,800 high school sophomores and juniors. Analyses indicate both significant selection effects and negative consequences of employment. Before working, adolescents who later work more than 20 hours per week are less engaged in school and are granted more autonomy by their parents. However, taking on a job for more than 20 hours per week further disengages youngsters from school, increases delinquency and drug use, furthers autonomy from parents, and diminishes self-reliance. Leaving the labor force after working long hours leads to improved school performance but does not reverse the other negative effects.

83. Steinberg, Laurence and Sanford Dornbusch. 1991. "Negative Correlates of Part-Time Employment During Adolescence: Replication and Elaboration." *Developmental Psychology*, 27:304-313.

This study examines the relation between part-time employment and adolescent development in heterogenous sample of approximately 4,000 15- though 18-year-olds. Long work hours during the school year are associated with lower investment and performance in school, greater psychological and somatic distress, drug and alcohol use, delinquency and autonomy from parents. Workers do not have any advantages over nonworkers in self-reliance, work orientation, or self-esteem. The negative correlates of school-year employment are closely linked to the number of hours worked each week and generally cut across ethnic, socioeconomic, and age groups; in no subsample are the correlates of extensive employment positive. The findings suggest that parents, educational practitioners, and policymakers should continue to monitor the number of weekly hours adolescents work during the school year.

84. Steinberg, Laurence, Suzanne Fegley and Sanford Dornbusch. 1992. "Negative Impact of Part-Time Work on Adolescent Adjustment: Evidence from a Longitudinal Study." *Developmental Psychology*, 2:171-180.

This study examines the relationship over time between school-year employment and adjustment in a heterogenous sample of approximately 1,800 high school sophomores and juniors. Analyses indicate both significant selection effects and negative consequences of employment. Before working, adolescents who later work more than 20 hours per week are less engaged in school and are granted more autonomy by their parents. However, taking on a job for more that 20 hours per week further disengages youngsters from school, increases delinquency and drug use, furthers autonomy from parents, and diminishes self-reliance. Leaving the labor force after working long hours leads to improved school performance but does not reverse the other negative effects.

85. Stern, David. 1984. "School-Based Enterprise and the Quality of Work Experience." *Youth and Society*, 15:401-427.

This report reviews the debate and existing evidence on the equality of work experience for high school students. It then calls attention to kind of work experience that has been ignored in previous discussions—namely, work done by students in the school. There are several distinct kinds of school-based work experience, of which one kind—school-based enterprise—is the subject of some empirical examination here. Two student-run restaurants are described as examples of school-based enterprises. Data from the students indicate that the work experience in these restaurants is distinctly better than that in most outside jobs. While these two examples might not be representative, they suggest that future research on and development of work experience should include the school itself as a worksite for students.

86. Stern, David and Yoshi Fumi Nakata. 1989. "Characteristics of High School Students' Paid Jobs and Employment Experience after Graduation," pp. 189-234, in *Adolescence and Work: Influences of Social Structure, Labor Markets, and Culture*, edited by David Stern and Dorothy Eichorn. Hillsdale, N.J.: Lawrence Erlbaum Press, Inc.

The data analyzed here, from the National Longitudinal Survey of Youth labor market experience, show that there are indeed differences among jobs in quality and quantity of social contacts, opportunities for using and developing valuable skills, and the job's potential intrinsic interest to a teenager. In addition to summarizing the prevalence of these job characteristics by gender and race of the person reporting them, we compare teenagers' and adults' characterizations of their jobs. Finally, we analyze connections between the teenagers' 1979 job subsample, interviewed before graduating form high school in 1979 and again in 1980, 1981 and 1982; we find some associations between qualitative aspects of jobs held during high school and labor market success during the subsequent three years. Of the qualitative dimensions measured here, skill use and development is most strongly associated with subsequent success in the labor market.

87. Styles, Melanie B. and Kristine V. Morrow. 1992, June. *Understanding How Youth and Elders Form Relationships: A Study of Four Linking Lifetimes Programs.* Philadelphia: Public/Private Ventures.

This study was designed to examine the relationships formed between elders (ages 55 and older) and at-risk youth (ages 12 to 17) at four Linking Lifetimes Intergenerational mentoring demonstration sites developed by Temple University's Center for Intergenerational Learning. The study examined the activities of these pairs (what they do together and talk about), the relationship formation process (whether and how these relationships develop, how they are sustained, how and why they end), and their practices (what constitute effective and ineffective practices in these relationships). Face-to-face interviews were conducted separately with youth and elders. Major findings showed that to be an effective mentor for a disadvantaged youth, the mentor should: plan activities the youth wants to do; not expect intimacy right away or try to force disclosure of feelings and information; offer help and guidance when the youth is ready; be reassuring and understanding; and be a friend to the youth, not a confidant of the family.

88. Sum, A. 1987. *The Longer-Term Impacts of Participation in Job's for America's Graduates Programs: Findings of the 20-Month Follow-Up of the Class of 1984.* Washington, D.C.: Jobs for America's Graduates.

89. Taylor, Ralph B. and Jeanette Covington. 1988. "Neighborhood Changes in Ecology and Violence." *Criminology*, Vol. 26, No. 4.

90. Torney, J., A.N. Oppenheim, R.F. Farnen. 1975. *Civic Education in Ten Countries: An Empirical Study.* New York: John Wiley and Sons.

91. Unger, D.G. and M.B. Sussman. 1990. *Families in Community Settings: Interdisciplinary Perspectives.* New York: Haworth Press.

This volume brings together an interdisciplinary group of scholars to address key issues facing families and their communities from different perspectives. The fields of family sociology, urban and community studies, education, social policy, community psychology, ancient history, environmental psychology, family studies, early childhood education, family psychology, and social welfare are represented.

92. Wirt, John G., Lana Muraskin, David Goodwin and Robert Meyer. 1989. *Summary Findings and Recommendations: Final Report (Vol. 1).* Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Education, Office of Education, National Assessment of Vocational Education.

This volume summarizes the main findings and conclusions of the national assessment that examined the implementation of the Carl D. Perkins Act of 1984 and the status of vocational education at the secondary and postsecondary levels. The assessment was mandated to describe and evaluate the vocational education services delivered to special populations, the effects of the Act in modernizing the vocational education system, the impact of vocational education on academic skills and employment opportunities, and other topics.

93. Zahn, G.L., S. Kagan and K.F. Widaman. 1986. "Cooperative Learning and Classroom Climate." *Journal of School Psychology*, 24:351-362.

The impact of two cooperative learning techniques, Student Teams-Achievement Divisions and Teams—Games—Tournaments, on classroom climate among students was compared to that of a traditional whole-class format. Thirty-five student teachers were randomly assigned to one of three classroom structures. Their pupils were 864 second- through sixth-grade students, including 288 non-Anglo (black and Mexican-American) students. A new measure of classroom climate, the Classroom Attitudes Scale, was developed that produce two attitude factors: Social Relations and Schoolwork. Cooperative techniques generally produced a slightly more favorable climate on both dimensions, and especially for females on Social Relations. Of the cooperative methods, Teams—Games—Tournament produced a significantly more favorable climate for Anglo-American students. The results support the conclusion that choice of classroom structure can bias classroom climate in favor of or against different ethnic groups.

APPENDIX B

SUMMARIES OF STRATEGIC PLANS

COMMUNITY CHANGE FOR YOUTH DEVELOPMENT (CCYD)
SUMMARIES OF STRATEGIC PLANS

Site: St. Petersburg, Florida

Lead Agency: Juvenile Welfare Board of Pinellas County (JWB)

Target Neighborhood: Childs Park

Poverty:	27%	Population:	
Ethnicity:	83.5% Black	Total:	15,000
	13.8% White	Youth:	2,100
	2.0% Hispanic		
	.7% Other		

Local Indicators of Capacity to Implement CCYD

- First-Year Activities/Local Commitment to Core Concepts

  First-year activities include:
  - Implement governance structure.
  - Organize neighborhood into zones with zone captains.
  - Implement Neighborhood Parent Program (a safe homes program).
  - Implement Cultural Arts Program.
  - Expand tutoring programs.
  - Implement Home Economics/Entrepreneurial Component.
  - Establish Youth Sports Academy.
  - Establish Childs Park Newspaper (youth-operated).
  - Implement Pre-Employment Work Maturity program.
  - Establish groundwork for collaboration with the City's Graphic Project (a mural project in the neighborhood).
  - Finalize and implement youth work opportunities with City neighborhood local capital improvement initiatives.

Many other possibilities that have been explored, but not included in the first-year plan are noted in the section on "Implementing the Core Concepts."

Using their own words, the Design Team developed an overarching goal statement for the effort and a goal statement for each core concept.

- Resident Involvement

The Design Team has a core group of four committed residents who have been at the center of the planning process since last January.

The Design Team has been meeting several times a month since then.

Youth involvement has been steadily growing, but consistent participation by any one individual youth has only been achieved within the past month.

Contracted service providers have been noticeably absent from the process.

- Governance Structure

Newly formed 14-member Childs Park Youth Initiative Council (CPYIC) will have 11 voting members, including five adult and two youth residents. Bylaws have been drafted. Two city employees and a JWB staffer to the Council will be ex-officio members. About one-third of the designated seats still need to be filled.

Some members will chair advisory groups representing local neighborhood youth, local business, ministerial alliance, the strong neighborhood association, local social clubs, and local black fraternities and sororities.

Council will control all policy and financial aspects of project.

JWB will provide all necessary administrative and accounting support and an unspecified level of research and training support.

Exact details of governance structure to be finalized during October.

- Local Leadership

JWB is an independent taxing authority that annually contracts for $19 million of social services for children, families and increasingly youth.

Central office costs of $3 to $4 million support contract management, research, policy and program, training, and communications/public relations capacity.

JWB is using CCYD as pilot site for countywide effort to develop community- and youth development-based expansion of youth services. JWB currently has voter-approved authority to raise annual revenues by an additional $8 million to support this expansion.

Current CPYIC leadership consists of a local minister (who is also Economic Development Coordinator for St. Petersburg); the president of the neighborhood association, an AIDS social worker, two Honeywell employees, and a retiree—all neighborhood residents; three city employees; and a JWB staffer.

- Resources

JWB is matching P/PV's anticipated $350,000 site grant. It also anticipates using its institutional capacity and influence to support CPYIC wherever possible.

City government is targeting neighborhood for a major neighborhood capital improvement effort which began in September 1995 based on a plan submitted by Childs Park Neighborhood Association (CPNA). Effort includes major renovation of Childs Park park, which has a recreation center as well as outdoor basketball courts.

CPNA has $100,000 in discretionary funds for youth activities.

Place-based activity sites include:
- Childs Park park and recreation center,
- One-stop social service center,
- A vocational college, Pinellas Technical College, and
- About 10 churches.

Site: Savannah

Lead Agency: Chatham-Savannah Youth Futures Authority (YFA)

Target Neighborhood: Census Tracks 20, 21, 26, 27 in Area C

Poverty:	35.3%	Population:	
Ethnicity:	94% Black	Total:	11,178
	6% White	Youth:	1,923

Local Indicators of Capacity to Implement CCYD

- First-Year Activities/Local Commitment to Core Concepts

The influence of the five core concepts can be found throughout the proposed long-range and first-year activities. However, they are not used to conceptually organize the many planned activities—"The CCYD Planning Committee felt strongly that it is far too difficult to isolate one core concept from another when designing programs and activities for young people." Instead, the first-year activities, "are clustered into the following broad categories":

1. Strengthening families and neighborhoods:
   - Recruit, train and supervise three (3) college interns to assist in aggressive outreach effort to identify and connect "hard to reach" youth to CCYD activities.
   - Convene all youth service providers on regular basis to better coordinate efforts and "to ensure continuity of family support to families in target area."
   - Implement parenting support groups.
   - Establish youth skills/talent bank and seek entrepreneurial youth opportunities in neighborhood.
   - Research and propose model to set up designated "safe houses."
   - Train adult volunteers and develop process for providing volunteer stipends (approximately $50/month).
   - Refer families needing help to the Family Resource Center (FRC) for case management services.
   - Through the Youth Service Corps, expand the community service component to include neighborhood youth ages 12 to 15 and include interested corps members in mentoring training offered by YFA.
   - Have outreach staff refer unemployed 18- to 21-year-old youth to the Youth Service Corps.
   - Identify rising seniors and give them priority enrollment into Jobs for GA Graduates program.
   - Establish Job Club program for youth ages 17 to 21.

- Expand conflict resolution and negotiation training to the Resource Center, neighborhood businesses, and private homes for neighbors.

2. Mobilizing neighborhoods:
   - Hold training workshops for FRC and Youth Councils.
   - Promote the initiative through public relations and informational opportunities.
   - Expand size and scope of Back to School Campaign organized by Youth Council.
   - Implement Corridors of Care neighborhood safety program.
   - Establish neighborhood council to receive referrals for community sentences from Family Court and the schools for students from the target area and charged with minor offenses.
   - Design and implement mini-grants program for use by organizations and neighborhood associations to support planned activities.
   - Youth council plans special events for non-school holidays.
   - Acquire equipment for FRC gym and plan a "continuum of youth development activities."
   - Develop a speaking tour at churches: coordination of youth activities and use church space for tutorial and feeding activities.

3. Increasing institutional capacity:
   - Have schools and Voluntary Action Group work together to support students efforts to participate in community service experience to meet high school graduation requirements.
   - Implement referral process to Chamber Summer Jobs Program.
   - Recruit and train five neighborhood businesses in how to set up job-shadowing opportunities for youth.
   - Meet with City Leisure Services to expand utilizations rates in target area and involve youth in program planning.
   - Contract with PIC Chamber and Schools to provide quarterly work-readiness workshops for different age groups.
   - Implement free drop-in Activity and Homework Center at Eastside Tech.
   - Train agency staff in the five core concepts and provide technical assistance in revising program activities.
   - Build a network of youth-serving agencies to ensure consistency in all programming efforts, avoid duplication and reach out to larger numbers of youth.
   - Facilitate discussion around the co-location of community job placement activities in the Resource Center.
   - Link CCYD youth to the "Building Bridges" project sponsored by Savannah State College to link youth to network of alumni.

The long-term vision states: "In summary, the neighborhood will become a protective environment in which families can raise their children within a strong network."

- Resident Involvement

  The meeting attendance sheets, the composition of the CCYD Planning Committee, and the list of Youth Generated Activities, suggest robust resident and youth involvement in the planning process.

- Governance Structure

  "The role of the YFA and the partners will be to oversee, generally, the implementation and evaluation of the CCYD initiative, including the budget, as part of its overall commitment to monitor the report progress on the outcome areas of the continuum."

  YFA will be advised by the Family Resource Center Advisory Council that it will be expanded to include "a group of community residents from the targeted neighborhood [who] have been actively participating in the development of this plan." The chair of the Council is already a member of YFA and a second Council member will be selected to join the YFA. The five-year vision also says that the Council will control a "mini-grant process" to support individual adults working with youth throughout the target area.

  YFA will also be advised by a new Youth Council formed by the youth participants in the CCYD planning process. "The Youth Council will also elect officers, two of whom will be selected to represent the Youth Council on the Family Resource Council and will be ex-officio members of the Youth Futures Authority."

  CCYD will also be supported by a coordinator, who will be a staff member of YFA and responsible for all youth services at the Family Resource Center, and a part-time clerical position.

- Local Leadership

  YFA, created by the state legislature in 1988 to run the local Casey Youth Futures effort in Savannah, "serves as a centerpiece of a community-owned model of collaboration." Its 43 members "are appointed by the local funders of the Collaborative, state department heads, the state legislative delegation, and the Authority itself and reflects the various constituencies across the community committed to the issues of children."

  YFA's vision statement is to "ensure that every child born in Chatham County will be born healthy, grow up healthy, be secure from abuse and neglect and become a literate, self-sustaining citizen." It sees CCYD as the conceptual structure within which "to launch a youth development initiative" and so extend its current program focus on children and family to include the adolescent years from 12 to 20.

The proposal also lists many local grassroots organizations that have been and will continue to be involved in the local effort.

- Resources

In the first year, P/PV's grant will cover $225,000 of expenses funding salaries and benefits ($66,300), contracted services ($110,000), operating expenses ($23,700) and volunteer stipends ($25,000). A $50,000 proposal has been submitted to Merck to partially fund the staff costs. Without this grant, it is unclear how second-year activities could be funded at first-year levels.

YFA is raising and/or reallocating $109,175 of its own funds to support the effort. $26,935 of this amount is in-kind YFA staff time.

YFA member agencies are making in-kind contributions of $291,400 to the effort—two-thirds of which are use of facility space and free summer lunches.

Site: Austin

Lead Agency: Austin/Travis County Health and Human Services Department-Community Services Division (CSD)

Target Neighborhood: Metz, Sanchez and Zavala Elementary School attendance zones

Poverty: 37%
Ethnicity: 81% Hispanic
11% Black
8% Other

Population:
Total: 11,739
Youth: 2,000 approx.

Local Indicators of Capacity to Implement CCYD

- First-Year Activities/Local Commitment to Core Concepts

The "Long-Term" vision section contains a well-conceived "Youth Charter" that for each core concept presents a set of goals that the neighborhood would like to achieve.

First-year activities include:

- Mentoring Program (150 to 200 adults).
- Community Service Projects: Improvement Corps; Security Lighting; Newsletter; Mural Project.
- Building Relationships Community-Wide: enlist and train 125 block leaders; develop three "base communities"; develop five parent groups.
- Leadership Training of Local Residents.
- Preemployment and Career Exploration: 30 teams with six to eight youth per team; 200 summer jobs; career path development.
- Linking Youth to Activities.
- Elementary: After-School Enrichment (120 to 130 classes per week).
- Developing 20 youth leaders.
- Develop three "Safe Zones"—places where youth can play but be monitored for safety by youth and adults.
- Establishing a Youth Development Center for one-stop shopping for youth related services.
- Better coordinate youth services.
- Continue SIHRY project.
- Involve youth in further development and implementation of Charter.
- Involve youth in decision-making at partner institutions and in their homes.

Most of these goals are supported by specific strategies for how they will be accomplished.

- Resident Involvement

A list is provided of over 190 neighborhood residents and a record of their attendance at each of the nine planning events.

A list is provided of the names of over 120 youth who participated in the planning process.

The proposal is sprinkled with references to comments made by adults and youth at various planning meetings.

- Governance Structure

A three-tier structure includes:

- "The Neighborhood Steering Committee (NSC), [which] will assume responsibility for coordinating neighborhood youth development resources, especially as it relates to the CCYD initiative . . . [It] will be responsible for determining the final structure and bylaws of the component of the governance structure; [and] establish a mechanism for allocating resources, selecting and awarding funding to community-based organizations." In accordance with resident wishes, "the key neighborhood institutions will nominate NSC members [an adult and a youth] who demonstrate a sincere commitment to strengthen ongoing partnerships between institutions and the new cadre of primary leaders." Only neighborhood residents will be voting members of the Committee. Other persons will be ex-officio members.

- "The Service and Support Partnership (SSP) as well as the CSD will assist and support the NSC's Youth Charter plans . . . Through the joint venture, the CSD will serve as the fiscal agent and lead agency responsible to P/PV and the NSC."

- A full-time staff of four will be hired as part of the CCYD initiative, including the CCYD coordinator.

- Local Leadership

The CCYD "Joint Venture" includes:

- Austin Interfaith, which "has the proven ability to mobilize the residents in these communities to 'envision' and achieve models of youth development in the neighborhood." "A team of approximately eight Austin Interfaith leaders worked with neighborhood residents" during the planning effort.

- SSP, a group of 24 local service providers and neighborhood associations, has been involved in the planning process and is likely to be involved in its implementation; and

- CSD has more than "120 full-time and 600 temporary employees" and its "annual budget is approximately $18 million. CSD's program operations for youth and families range from maternal and child health programs to an active urban youth corps."

- Resources

"We (the site) have raised 84 percent of our proposed budget of $963,100. The vast majority of the local support represents new funding provided by a variety of sources," including $500,000 from the City of Austin.

Neighborhood places for activities include Metz, Sanchez and Zavala elementary schools; Martin Junior High; Our Lady of Guadalupe Catholic Church; Cristo Rey Catholic Church; El Buen Presbyterian Church; two libraries; five recreation centers; and five parks and playgrounds.